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ABSTRACT

This is the seventh of eight volumes consisting of series of publications of the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults (CSLEA), such as Notes and Essays, Research Reports, Occasional Papers, and Conference Reports. These materials provide both theory and practice in the area of non-credit liberal education offered by colleges and universities. This volume contains five numbers in the CSLEA Research Report series and one in the Occasional Papers series. Research Report titles include (1) New Directions in Programming for University Adult Education: (2) The Part-Time College Teacher: (3) Ability and Achievement of Evening College and Extension Students: (4) Why Students Drop Out: A Study of Evening College Student Motivations: and (5) Cumulative Indexes: Association of University Evening College Proceedings, 1948-58, and National University Extension Association Proceedings, 1915-57. The Occasional Paper is We Need a Philosophy. (YLB)

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HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES OF CSLEA

Volume VII

Reports and Occasional Papers: 1953-1963

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Preface

In the two decades following World War II there was a surge of movement in the field of adult education. Among the exciting developments was the interest in liberal adult education which was encouraged and substantially supported by the Fund for Adult Education. The F.A.E. in return provided leadership and financial support to the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults. The primary concern of CSLEA was to provide leadership and specific assistance by resources to colleges and universities to assist them in developing noncredit programs in the area of liberal education for adults. During the period the staff initiated and often conducted many seminars and workshops. They also provided consultative services to colleges and universities as they developed programs in liberal Education for adults.

Another contribution was the publication of series such as Notes & Essays, Reports, and Occasional Papers. The publications are generally accepted by educators of adults--nationally and internationally--as being some of the finest in terms of both theory and practice.

Many publications are now out-of-print and indeed in some cases even our copy is difficult to locate. The requests for copies of CSLEA and other statements are frequently received. Accordingly copies of these documents have been collected and compiled into several volumes. A copy of each volume is being sent to ERIC for their distribution. In this way these valuable publications may be made available to practitioners as well as researchers in adult and continuing education.

Ms. Julie Smith and Mrs. B. J. Vaughn have been particularly helpful and diligent in preparing these volumes.

Alexander N. Charters
December 1980

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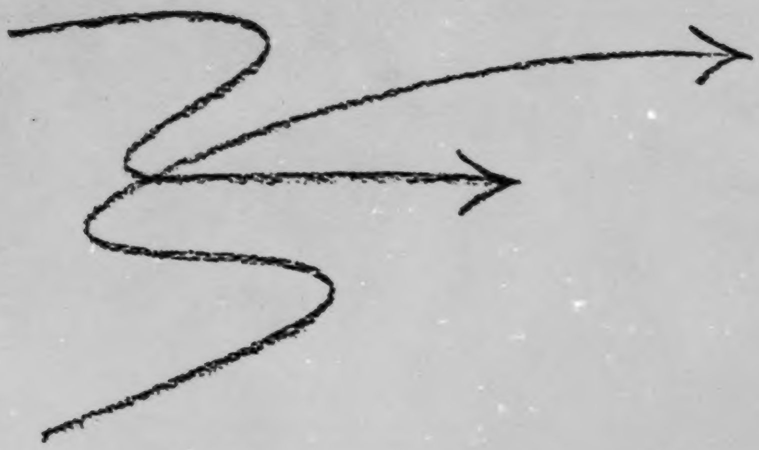

New Directions in Programming for University Adult Education

By Peter E. Siegle and James B. Whipple

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Prepared by the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults for the Annual
Meeting of the Association of University Evening Colleges, New York, November, 1956

April 1957

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PREFACE

This essay is an outcome of the recent annual meeting of the Association of University Evening Colleges, where the convention devoted major attention to New Directions in Programming for University Adult Education. The Center was asked to prepare working materials for the deliberations, and its document elicited sufficient attention to warrant publication as a Notes and Essays. A few editorial changes and minor revisions have been made, but, in all its essential points, this edition is identical with the original paper.

Publication seemed appropriate from two additional points of view, as well. First, in the perspective of university education for adults, the fact that there are new directions is an important indication that evening colleges and extension divisions are coming of age. This point is developed in a thoughtful statement by Professor Herbert Schueler, which, originally prepared as the Keynote Address to the AUEC Convention, Professor Schueler has permitted us to include as the introductory chapter of this volume.

In the perspective of Center publications, this essay serves as another in the series of Notes and Essays devoted to "New Directions for University Adult Education." This project was inaugurated in 1955 with the publication of Notes and Essays, number 11, describing the faculty at Rutgers and the Basic Program at the University of Chicago. It should be made clear that the purpose of this paper is to indicate new directions in programming; it does not pretend to be a complete catalogue of new courses. In selecting our illustrations, we have tried to use interesting or outstanding programs which have come to our attention, but the inclusion of one program instead of another should not be interpreted as a value judgment.

Peter E. Siegle
James B. Whipple

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION*

It has become the fashion of our time to beat the air with alarms about the tidal wave of students in higher education. The practice of likening the flower of our nation's youth to one of the most devastating disasters known to man is a good indication of the depth of our despair. The vision of this mountainous wave thundering down upon our colleges and universities, engulfing all, and receding, leaving bleak desolation in its wake, is indeed awesome to behold. But such is the nettle of our presidents and boards of trustees in the face of impending doom that they are bravely facing the threat with grandiose plans of expansion, with bigger and better lecture halls, laboratories, and parking lots. There is none to be pitied more in the fraternity of college presidents than the unfortunate with but one new building in the works, and beyond the pale indeed is the beggar who has not at least been able to acquire a vice-president in charge of development. Never in history has impending doom been greeted with such a rubbing of hands and licking of chops. Symptomatic of this masochistic pleasure in disaster is the case of an institution of my acquaintance which, having raised its entrance standards so high that it unexpectedly found itself without a mournfully anticipated increase in enrollment, quickly lowered these standards so that its facilities could continue to be decently over-crowded and its staff maintain the respectability of overwork. I venture to say that there are few institutions which would not prefer to face the ominous portent of rising enrollment rather than happily anticipate a decline. Such is the brave stuff we are made of.

But to be serious. There is cause for alarm in this increase in numbers seeking higher education, and it is not so much alarm at the overtaxing of facilities. The building boom in American higher education now under way justifies my faith in the power of checkbook and mortar to overcome that difficulty. Space will be created, and it will gleam with all the functional polish of modern institutional artifice. That is one of the things we know how to do best. The danger lies rather in what will be happening or perhaps not happening to the student. We are becoming increasingly addicted to the habit of using such terms as the student body, the sophomore class, the lecture section, the upper quartile of entering freshmen, and caring less and less about John Smith and Mary Jones. We wire a professor for sound and thereby make it possible to have his voice reach far beyond his ability to see, let alone recognize, his students. In fact, it is even possible, in the ultimate of impersonal, electronic invention, to remove him completely from the distraction of the physical presence of students, through the medium of tape recording or closed-circuit television. When we talk at all about the student as an individual, we tend to be preoccupied with his shortcomings. He cannot read, he writes badly, he has no scholarly curiosity, he has no proper foundation for college work. And in many of our professional conferences and in much of our recent professional literature we rather petulantly call upon the preparatory schools to do something about it, most constructively suggesting that the first step would be getting rid of a somewhat nebulous, but certainly indecent thing called progressive education. In our curriculum, we tend more and more to develop material we believe to be good for all students, leaving more and more to mass prescription, and allowing less and less for individual election. Indeed, as one surveys the development of higher education in the last ten years, one is forced to conclude that the danger is not that the tidal wave of students will engulf the university, but that the university will engulf the students.

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*Keynote Address of Herbert Schueler, Association of University Evening Colleges, New York City—November 13, 1956.

As we can appreciate, the evening college is in a peculiarly vulnerable position in this situation. The path of least resistance, and one that is finding favor with distressing frequency among university administrators today, is for the evening college to retreat to its historic position of exclusively providing after-dark services, carbon copies of the day session, for the part-time student. Some go further and suggest that even this service be curtailed in proportion to the need for around-the-clock use of university facilities for the full-time, day session student. I know of one institution in which the dean of the evening college has been given a priority list of programs to be curtailed if and when day-session needs and carbon copy evening-session needs require additional facilities. The first to go are to be the non-credit programs; the next those credit programs that were developed by the evening college especially for adults; with the result that if developments run the course that some fear and others hope, the evening college will revert to its original status as the tired adjunct to the day program, and its dean will lose his status as educational leader in the development of programs for adults, and be exclusively preoccupied with such administrative busy work as room schedules and parking permits.

That this movement, if allowed to proceed unchecked, will destroy whatever distinctive educational entity the evening college is just beginning to assume, goes without saying. And if that comes to pass, American higher education will be the loser. Even a cursory glance at the proceedings of recent AUEC conferences, the publications and the pump priming and prototype activites of the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, will reveal the magnitude of this loss. If there is one thing that has characterized the activities of the leadership in the evening college movement in the last five years, it is a growing preoccupation with the development of programs conceived within the rationale of adult needs, interests, and ways of learning and with the urgent need for continuing adult education in a society dependent upon the enlightened participation of its citizenry in all phases of governmental, social, and cultural life. And since university adult education serves and to an increasingly large extent is formed by the better educated segments of our society, or at any rate those among the better educated who are most effectively infected with the divine discontent that inspires continuing self-improvement, it is a primary factor in building the kind of leadership that should be characteristic of a dynamic democratic society.

I would be very much surprised if the growing adult clientele of some of our more successful evening colleges would allow the kind of curtailment of program that some of our administrators are hopefully suggesting. Some of us have built the mature student of intelligence and experience far too successfully into our new programs for him to be turned back now.

Above I deplore the growing tendency of our institutions of higher education to bury the individual in the mass, and to ladle out standardized prescriptions of homogenized curriculum for all to absorb. In this movement our colleges are coming disturbingly close to following the educational principle followed by those custodians of our mass media, the advertising agencies. All of us who have suffered through an average evening in front of the television set can appreciate the principle involved. You start with what you conceive to be the level of taste, interest, and erudition of your audience, depress it another twenty-five percent to make sure that you haven't over-estimated, build a package around it, and send it out for the enlightenment of the mass. And the mass reacts with gratifying obedience; it buys more toothpaste, deodorants, depilatories, and nostrums for tired blood and other internal irregularities, than it ever thought it needed until it was pointed out in the television curriculum. If education is narrowly conceived of as the changing of people's habits, the mass media of our enlightened electronic age are spectacularly effective. But I refuse to believe that the requirements of building citizens of thoughtful and responsible erudition can be met in this manner. In fact, isn't it the central social problem of our time to find ways to educate the individual as an individual in spite of the inescapable fact that there are so overwhelmingly many of him who want and deserve to be so educated? Seen in this way, the mass becomes many persons, the student body becomes many students, and the social group becomes many neighbors. Admittedly, it is a desperately difficult task, requiring much experimentation, trial, and dedication. And where is this dedicated experimentation being done? If the publication of the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, the Proceedings of recent AUEC conventions, the last three issues of the AUEC Newsletter, and indeed the program of this convention and its working papers are any criterion, it is the evening college that is emerging as one of the leaders. The leitmotif of individualization dominates a good portion of the material in the working papers for this convention. New York University has a new degree program in which each individual seeks under advisement to plan a program suited to his own particular needs without the inhibition of general requirements; the Basic Program at Chicago features individual tutorials and seminars; Pittsburgh brings together representative leaders of its adult student clientele to work with faculty in planning a series of adult courses and in evaluating their effectiveness after they have been given; the Institute of Liberal Studies for Executives at Clark has as its aim "to liberate individuals from confining habits of thought, attitudes, and experience" and proposes to achieve this with educational methods that will encourage maximum participation of all members; the Management Development Program of the University of Wisconsin runs most of its sessions on a workshop basis in which the individual problem of each participant is brought into the wider perspective of neighborly consideration; Harvard's Advanced Management Program practices the case method, using studies of real business situations which executives are facing today, and tries thereby to develop thought from the concrete, particular situation to the broad principle, and by projection of the realistic model, given each individual help in meeting the problems of his own experience; the De Kalb project for practicing teachers is attempting to build a program of liberal arts geared specifically to the needs of public school teachers, which, because it began with a consideration of the background and cultural niveau of the teachers themselves and the educational needs thereby revealed, is turning out to be radically different from the usual graduate work given to but not planned for teachers; Brooklyn's Experimental Degree Project, as we all know, not only looks at each individual student's background and experience but gives him college credit for college level skills and knowledge he already possesses. In addition, a new curriculum especially geared to adult needs is being worked out; the University of California at Berkeley, in planning an Institute for Journalists, is first attempting to identify journalists' concerns and problems through personal interviews with the journalists themselves, before developing a curriculum for the Institute; the TV Credit Program at the University of Houston insists on regular face to face conferences of students and instructors at the university, thereby attempting to bring individualization into the educational use of a mass medium; the Queens Adult Seminars build the student into each seminar in such a way that he participates not only in the discussions themselves, but works with the leaders and his colleagues in the actual planning of the work that is to be accomplished. These are but a very few of many that could be mentioned. Each seeks in its own way to identify the individual need and build it into the curriculum and method of its program. And while there are common elements in all of them that make them kin, they display a refreshing and challenging diversity. Which is as it should be. For aren't kinship and diversity complementary qualities of human kind? In any case, they are an eloquent rejection of the mechanistic conception of education as the process of casting each individual from the same pre-conceived mold. Such shoddy human merchandise commands scant respect in an enlightened society.

But there are other leitmotifs coursing through the creative programming of our evening colleges. One is that most diverse and ever-changing reality of human living, the community. There is hardly an evening college in the membership of the Association of University of Evening Colleges that isn't in some way building the community into its adult programs. This is being accomplished in many ways. The most common is to offer to a specific community group the physical and human resources of the university in helping to solve the problems they believe to be of moment. Just a few examples will suffice for illustration: the Executive Development Program for Federal Administrators; the New York University-University of Miami Annual Conference on Business and Tax Policy; the many UCLA conferences on specialized problems in engineering; the prolific and imaginative conferences at the Georgia State College of Business Administration for the many specialized segments of the Atlanta business community; the first Vassar Institute for Women in Business; the Nebraska School for Community Living for farm and small-town youth. In some of the programs just mentioned and in others like the Adirondack Center Programs of Syracuse, the Junto Weekend Residential School for Adults; the Highlander Folk School; the Goddard Music and Art Center; and those wonderful regional faculty seminars for which CSLEA is largely responsible; in all these the concept of community is harnessed as a method of learning, in which the residential idea as applied to the fellowship of fraternal learning is exploited to the fullest.

After this listing, it is well to call attention to the contribution these and other creative examples of programming are making to what may be called the method of university adult education. There are the individual conference and tutorial, the seminar, the workshop, the lecture; there are the intensive all day course, the course spaced over many weeks; there are the residence concepts with alternating periods of intensive group study and relaxed good fellowship; there are independent study and cooperative study; there are the excursion of the university into the community and the incursion of the community group into the university. In each case the idea of the program determined the method; not the other way around, as is so common in our universities. Contrast this wealth of learning method with the institutionalized tradition inherited fron the conventional university—periods of standardized length bounded at each end by the sound of a bell with a professor's talking filling the space in between. (In the undergraduate school it is usually a matter of fifty minutes, in the graduate a hundred—on the theory, no doubt, that it takes longer to make a point in the upper levels.)

Finally, I should like to mention what is to me the most challenging combination of individual and community in the service of mutual enrichment of all these mentioned in our working papers; the proposed Laboratory College for Adults. While this proposal stems from the collective brain of the Center staff, I like to think that is is a product, in part, of the evening college movement, and represents a synthesis and further culmination of some of the most creative moments in university adult education. The proposal to use the living community as both subject matter and method in the service of adult growth is a conception we might all strive toward. And perhaps we might see the project as a two-sided venture, one in which the individual learns from the community, and the community benefits from the individual. In this way might such brave ventures as the New York City Center for the Arts not only have its plays, operas, ballet performances, concerts, and art exhibits built into a program of organized adult education, but also derive considerably more public support than they now enjoy.

These then were a few of the themes that I saw in the creative programming of our university evening colleges. Lest I be accused, in my enthusiasm for the movement of which I still consider myself a part, of playing the rhapsody with an excess of admiration, I should like to temper my final remarks with a sober note of caution. As all who have studied the development of the ways of mankind know, the institution exacts its inevitable toll of every creative moment in the development of civilization. Spencer couched the process in a depressingly apt metaphor. He called it cementing the cake of custom. In this process, all too frequently, characteristic of the institution of higher education, a good idea has its life gradually squeezed out by successive, cumulative institutional weight, and the leaven of inspiration is gradually supplanted by the cement of tradition, until little but an empty form is left of the original idea. It is all too tragic but perhaps somewhat inevitable, that Aristotle had his Aristotolians, Cicero his Ciceronians, Pestalozzi his Pestalozzians, and Dewey his Deweyites. I shudder to think of the fate of these new directions in programming if they succumb to the temptation to develop too soon into unchanging traditions. Perhaps it would be well if the success of each stage of development were tempered with just a little dash of failure, enough to keep the mind on edge. And to those who fear that I am espousing the educational philosophy of change for its own sake, I can only say that the institution of the school is by its very nature resistant to change. The danger is not that our institutionalized forms of education will change too much, it is that they will change too little. I pray that the evening college will assume wholeheartedly the mission of ever developing and improving creative programming in the service of continuing adult education, and that it will resist the temptation to rest on momentary successes and consign its creative moments to the oblivion of compacent, unchanging transmittal. The soul of Goethe's Faust, the embodiment of western civilization, was to be consigned to oblivion, if at any moment in his life he were to admit to Mephistopheles that now he was content. And when after many years of restless seeking Faust found contentment in the conception and execution of an inspired project to build a living city out of wasteland, the voice of God cut into the seeming triumph of Mephistopheles:

> "Wer immer strebend sich bemüht,
> Den können wir erlösen."
>
> "Blessed is the man who strives and never stops,
> for therein lies his salvation."

The evening college is on the threshhold of its Faustian age. May divine discontent goad it into imaginative new directions, and shunning complacency and the trap of cementing institutionalization, may it find contentment in continuing dynamic growth.

CHAPTER II

PROGRAMMING FOR LIBERAL ARTS

The liberal arts as we know them have been for generations the essential life blood of the traditional university. Yet today our discussion of new directions in liberal arts programming for adults assumes that the changes taking place in liberal arts teaching either break completely from tradition or are evolving toward new approaches for the future. These new directions in the liberal arts are essentially either different combinations or reorganizations of content, method, materials, and activities designed to satisfy the imperatives of modern adult life.

The programs included in this section have in common an emphais on the liberating function of the experience, particularly as it opens up for the individual or group new opportunities for continued growth. New methods are adapted to the exigencies of adult life–time for attendance, time for study, and motivations for learning–and are tied to needs and requirements of special groups important to the proper functioning of society.

This chapter is concerned with liberal arts developed in a non-credit framework, and within which the goals are primarily liberation of the individual, discovery of the pleasures of learning for its own sake, and development of what one social critic has called "the liberal public."[1]

Six programs are cited as representing new ways of teaching traditional disciplines and new formats for the liberal education of adults. The Laboratory College for Adults is an experiment in the art of learning from experience. The Queens College Adult Seminars emphasize the notion that a course for adults can not only "start them where they are," but can be flexible enough to allow cooperation of both students and teacher in reshaping its content and method. The Vassar Institute is a pilot project to encourage expanding intellectual and aesthetic horizons for business women through an intensive residential liberal arts experience. The Pittsburgh program experiments with student involvement in developing a single course. The Institute on Human Issues Today attempts to combine the residential setting with a continuing course to form liberal arts programs for labor union leadership. The Test Centers Project of the Fund for Adult Education was conceived to enable trained lay leaders to share with faculties of higher education the leadership in continuing liberal education given to adults.

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[1] 1. Some of the finest new directions in liberal arts are related to their liberating function for specialist groups; and these are discussed in the chapter on businessmen, professionals, and technicians (III). Similarly, liberal programs for community leadership and community development are treated separately in Chapter IV.

Although these programs are all non-credit, there is nothing in them which precludes their adaptation to the credit structure, and they should be viewed in the light of both possibilities.

THE LABORATORY COLLEGE FOR ADULTS

There are many adults who want regular academic work, up to and including a degree—they want it to get ahead economically or socially; they want it for its prestige value in our society; they want it enough to sweat out 15 to 20 years of night classes. There are other adults who may be interested in university education, BUT . . . (1) they have a degree; (2) they do not have twenty years of free evenings; (3) they discover they have outgrown much of the regular program designed for youth. The Lab College for Adults is designed to help open doors to the interesting and exciting things and ideas and processes of which many of us get only tantalizing glimpses. . . . And the College proposes that it can be done in a way that is especially for adults.

The objective of the Lab College is the art of learning from experience—the ability to take meaning from it, to relate ourselves to it, to learn from it. In slightly different words, its goals are to provide people living in an urban environment with tools of understanding and analysis with respect to (1) their present experience and (2) the expanded experiences available to them in the city—so that they can live richer lives and better understand the complex social context in which their experiences are set.

The primary source of experience for liberal education in the Lab

College will be the city: its museums, its galleries, its symphonies and theatres, its newspapers, its social dilemmas, its political structure and problems, its families, its people. The students will go out into the city to get common experiences, which then can be evaluated, reflected on, and discussed; they will examine their past experiences as family members, citizens, and workers. Reading is experience, too, one of the most valuable of all; and books will be part of the process.

Selection of experiences is dictated in part by the urban environment where the Lab College is situated, but in part it will be influenced by the limitations and problems of peoples' experiences in the urban setting. For example: (1) these experiences are fragmented; (2) the economic dimension of peoples experience dominates their lives; (3) their experiences are restricted to a narrow milieu; (4) they tend to respond to those experiences which require least effort on their part; (5) they tend to be passive toward the experiences they have; (6) their group norms tend to make them avoid certain experiences and to make them shy away from an investigative attitude when it is most needed.

The Lab College provides for a three-year program in which each year will be designed to perform a specific function in the total educational experience. THE FIRST YEAR is devoted to exploration, and the emphasis will be on having the widest possible variety of experiences for the group and bringing to the experiences the widest possible variety of viewpoints. THE SECOND YEAR is a skill-development period. The variety of experience will narrow considerably, and the emphasis will be on the development of criteria for approaching experiences of different kinds. THE THIRD YEAR is planned to allow for the play of individual differences and choices, and the development of self-confidence in the practice of new skills. The group will set up its own program in consultation with the faculty, and the faculty will play the role of resource members rather than of directive leadership.

Not only will the courses be organized and taught with due consideration for adult characteristics, but the program as a whole will be arranged to fit the daily lives of adults. That is, class meetings, vacations, special institutions, and so forth will be adjusted to adult rhythms of work and leisure.

Status and References

This is a proposal developed by the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults; no experiments have been attempted to date.

See Seventh Interim Report (CSLEA), Appendix H, pp. 66-70; or write the Center for proposal and other unpublished information.

QUEENS COLLEGE ADULT SEMINARS

The basic principle underlying the adult seminars at Queens is the familiar notion that with adults it is necessary to start where they are. In somewhat more detail, the following characteristics of learning experiences for adults are considered fundamental.

(1) The experiences should be open-ended and flexible, enabling the interested adult to enroll for as many semesters as he wishes without incurring the risk of repetitive waste in the case of re-registration, or the danger of fragmentary experience in the case of a one-semester enrollment.

What is required, therefore, are learning experiences so organized that they can do justice to the individuality of the adult while making it possible for him to use this individuality as a positive force, giving direction to his own studies and to the program in which he participates. One requirement would be that any particular course be open-ended. The individual might come one semester only, or a second, or a third, and if he chose to come more than one semester, the semesters would not need to be in unbroken sequence.

(2) The experience should be so organized that the enrollees themselves share with the instructors the shaping of content and method, and thereby become organically a volitional part of the course structure.

In this type of student-centered learning, it is intended to treat the student as a participating partner, rather than as a receptor, and to so structure both subject and method as to make it possible for the student individually and in the group to act as a determinant in what precisely is to be investigated and how it is to be handled. This approach would require a minimization of the conventional rigidities of both pre-determined, prescriptive syllabi, and classroom methodology.

This practice follows naturally from the view that the expected

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heterogeneity of student body requires a much larger individualization of approach. More importantly, it is an application of a primary characteristic of learning: that learning takes place to the degree and in the quality that the individual feels himself directly and personally involved in the object and method of learning. It will be necessary, therefore, to build the student into the course structure in a way quite different from the conventional pattern of higher education.

(3) The experiences should have as their point of departure the present condition of the world and man, and whatever the materials of study, whether the record of the works of the past, the recent present, or the visions and speculations of the future, they will be the means toward understanding the world of current living, to the end that the students will be better equipped to share in shaping the course of the future.

Continuing education is here given a modus vivendi which is intended to come to grips with the dynamics of living in its most vital aspects —human and material, social and individual, aesthetic and practical. This emphasis will assist the individual to expand his range of personal involvement with the currently evolving works of man—in the arts, in the human and natural sciences—because it is felt that the things which should matter most to the modern individual are the things which now are and tomorrow will become, and that the motivation for personal growth which is most conducive to this growth is compounded of understanding forces which give direction to current living and of the involvement of the growing individual in shaping this direction. It is assumed that an adult who seeks continuing education is concerned with finding and improving his role as a participant in the culture and not with being an incurious, passive spectator.

(4) The experiences should offer no artificial stimuli to achievement, nor intrinsic symbols of social recognition like academic credits, certificates, and degrees, but will depend for their appeal on mature interest in specific tasks at hand and the desire to be assisted, through a meeting of minds, in a process which continues to broaden and deepen interests, insights, and powers.

This program, then, is not one of belated education, but one of continuing adult education.

Objectives are implicit in an assumption that with adults you must start where they are. The implication is that the seminars take them somewhere, although where is determined in part by the group and will vary from one situation to another. In another sense, the seminar is designed to capitalize on conversation as an important part of the learning experience. This term is borrowed from Robert Redfield, who points out that the conversation may be between the listener and the lecturer, the reader of a book and its author, the student and the tutor, or in discussion among members of a group. In each case past knowledge, ideas, or experience are matched against new ideas being presented. Adults know more than they understand; it is hoped that the conversations in the adult seminar may lead to greater understanding.

In practice, starting where they are has meant different approaches for different subject matters. Two seminars were offered in 1955-56; they proceeded in almost opposite directions. In The United States in Foreign Affairs the group discovered they needed knowledge and information about world affairs; therefore, a series of lectures, presentations by experts, visual aids, and readings were planned as the basis for discussion. In Values Men Live By the group wanted to discover what other participants' values were and to develop a more meaningful personal philosophy toward life; in this case, the group depended largely on their own resources. However, they decided to continue for an additional six weeks to discuss religious values which had been touched upon briefly in an earlier session; and, significantly, at this point they decided that resources beyond the experience of the group were required,and outside readings were planned.

Status and References

At this point there is insufficient data to evaluate how much, if any, growth occurred. Students were enthusiastic and it was possible to obtain increasing participation in planning. Additional seminars are planned for 1956-57.

See A Preliminary Plan for the Establishment of Adult Seminars; Mid-Year Report on Two Experimental Seminars; The Queens College Seminars for Adults (extract of mid-year report). These are dittoed, unpublished documents—for information write CSLEA. A complete report will be forthcoming within the next twelve months.

The School of General Studies at Queens College has a printed announcement on "Adult Seminars."

THE VASSAR INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN IN BUSINESS
(A Pilot Project)

The assumption of the Institute is that individuals who have been well trained and highly experienced in their professions or in skills necessary to their life's work can benefit greatly from a liberal arts education which follows specialized training and several years of experience on the job.

It is known that there are many organizations, professional societies, and voluntary associations organized primarily around the vocational commitments of their members, most of whom have had about the same kind and amount of previous education. It is also known that although business and industry have begun to develop programs of liberal education for their leadership, there is a significant dearth both of liberal education programs for professional societies and for women in the business and professional world.

The CSLEA believed that ways could be found to help business and professions develop programs to overlay or supplement specialization with new or improved experiences that are liberalizing for the individuals involved. And since women are playing an increasingly important role in American business and professional life, a program of liberal arts for adult women ought to be as valuable as programs for adult men.

The purpose of the Institute was to provide an opportunity for business and professional women to enjoy a liberally educative experience, specially created to develop within them a greater capacity to enjoy learning and a desire to continue liberal studies on their own.

The general aims would be:

For the individual:

A broadening of social and personal perspectives;

An increased knowledge in areas other than those directly related to the profession or already embraced by specialized training;

The strengthening of insights so as to make an individual more capable of resisting trends toward unreasoned conformity;

Awakened aesthetic interests and the development of interest in further liberally educative experiences.

For the Association:

An exploration of possibilities for conducting similar institutes in other colleges and at other times during the year;

Similar programs organized regionally and locally;

Development of interest for similar programs among other groups of professional women;

Development of interest for similar institutes among other professional societies (regardless of sex).

Developing the program for the Institute required three phases:

(1) Finding a cooperative professional society related to business;

(2) Interviewing some of its membership and working closely with an established committee in the development of plans for recruitment, curriculum, selection of students and faculty;

(3) Conducting the program itself.

The group selected was the National Secretaries Association (International), which has developed a special certificate of competence known as the Certified Professional Secretary, the secretarial equivalent of the CPA. Students were recruited from some 572 CPS holders who were also members of NSA. They were to be sponsored by their company, and their period at Vassar was not to be in lieu of vacation. The number of students was limited and only 27 could be chosen from over 100 applicants; there was an attempt to make the group representative.

As a result of interviewing and committee work, the curriculum decided upon had as its focus Explorations in Meaning . . . a discussion of significant life themes as they apply to the individual in her relationship to government, law, the social system, the arts, and other individuals. There were three main subject categories within which these explorations developed: Public Issues, Man and His Behavior, The Creative Arts.

In addition to the regular class sessions, which met daily except Saturday and Sunday, there were field trips and visitations with distinguished guests: political figures, poets, artists, dancers, musicians, social critics.

The atmosphere was kept informal at all times, in keeping with the thoroughly residential aspect of the program. Likewise, the curriculum was kept flexible as it selected and sorted from among the potential liberal arts studies that would help the students develop new ways of understanding experience and find a basis for continued intellectually creative growth.

Status and References

The Institute was held August 5-19, 1956. It was considered a success by students and staff. Information is available through the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults.

THE EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR ADULTS

The University of Pittsburgh

Involvement of students in developing courses for adults is a subject often talked about but not easily implemented. At the University of Pittsburgh an experiment of this kind was begun in the winter of 1955, and was based upon a desire to test hypotheses about developing courses especially for adults, instead of merely transposing regular full-time day courses into the evening.

The quotation below is from a letter by the Director of the Extension Division at Pittsburgh inviting students who have enrolled in at least one non-credit course to help out with the experiment. It explains the program's objectives.

> "The University is planning an experiment in curriculum development at the adult level that will involve a selected group of lay participants. Inasmuch as you have been enrolled in at least one of the non-credit courses, which were started in the spring of 1954, it occurred to me that you might possibly be interested in helping us with this experiment.
>
> "Briefly, we hope to develop a curriculum of general education for adults. It is our belief that mature students, having varied backgrounds of experiences and education, coming to the University to continue their education, should have the opportunity of enrolling in a special curriculum including courses of study developed especially in line with their interests and making use of especially adaptable instructional methods.
>
> "We feel that it is not always sufficient to transpose the curricula developed for full time day students into the evening program. Traditionally, curricula of this sort are planned and developed by experts in the various fields of interest. We expect to rely on their counsel and advice in the development of this curriculum, but we want to begin by getting the suggestions and recommendations of lay people.

> "We hope to interest a small select group of lay persons in this project who can spend some time with us next winter in developing a course of study in at least one field of interest to adults, let us say Philosophy, and in helping us develop the best methods of presentation and instructional aids. It is difficult to estimate how much of your time this project will take, but in all probability it should not require more than one evening a week. On the other hand, an orientation session is planned for the spring and evaluation periods will be held; these might be conducted on weekends."

In response to the original letter outlining the rationale of the experiment, there were 130 applicants. From these were selected 25, representing an attempted cross-section of the Pittsburgh community with respect to religion, occupation, avocational interests, previous education, etc. This group attended a planning meeting at the University and a subsequent weekend meeting at Mann's Choice, Pennsylvania, at which they discussed with members of the administration and faculty relevant to the content and method of a course in Philosophy. At the same time groundwork was laid for the establishment of a working committee, to consist of representatives of the faculty (namely, the course teacher and a graduate dean), the Director of Extension, and a student elected by the class.

The student body is described as follows:

Occupation: butcher, banker, salesman, engineer, purchasing agent, real estate broker, housewives, secretaries, teachers, librarian, school administrator.

Age range: 21 - 71.

Sex: 9 men; 15 women.

Religion: 6 Jewish; 16 Protestant; 2 Catholic.

Marital Status: 14 married; 8 single; 2 divorced.

Education: 14 college graduates; 4 some college; 6 high school.

At Mann's Choice, the group asked that a course in philosophy be prepared for the fall of 1956. Classes began at Pittsburgh in October of that year, and ran through the Spring of 1957. A diary of class and committee discussions has been kept by the group secretary. The classroom method is clearly lecture-discussion, which is what the students demanded; but available transcripts indicate that as the course progressed, lectures became less frequent, and student discussion predominated.

Status and Reference

Students have requested that the program be continued so that it can be shared with others.

Reports of the program are available through Viers W. Adams, Director of Extension and Summer Session, University of Pittsburgh.

THE INSTITUTE ON HUMAN ISSUES TODAY

(A Pilot Project)

(Jointly sponsored by The Humanities Center for the Liberal Arts in an Industrial Society [formerly the College English Association Institute], the United Packinghouse Workers of America, and CSLEA)

In today's society one has no difficulty in finding a number of programs designed to help management better prepare its members for the task of managing America's business enterprises. In recent years the trend of such educational programs has been in the direction of the liberal arts, as in the Vassar Institute, the Bell telephone program, and several others. Labor, a very significant part of our industrial society, has also devoted considerable energy to training its leadership. But unlike management, labor has not yet begun to look upon liberal education as a necessary part of its leadership development; and this project is designed to emphasize the need for liberal education.

The purpose of the project is to provide an educational setting in which members of a specialized group (second line leaders of a national union) can profit greatly from a broad, liberal, educational experience geared to their own needs, interests, and concerns. It is assumed also that as a result of this experience, a two-way learning process will be effected between the college faculty and the union personnel involved, for built into the program is a constant colloquery between two segments of society working toward a common goal.

Since a most important aspect of the program is the joint planning among the Humanities Center, the colleges involved, and the union members, each step in planning and execution becomes an integral part of the total educational process. The education begins, therefore, at the first point of contact, and continues through group evaluation. There are five steps:

(1) Preliminary Planning—by the CSLEA staff, representatives of the union, and the Humanities Center.

(2) Program Development—This phase of the program involves several stages:

a. Direct negotiations with the universities involved—The purpose will be to establish a working relationship which will involve the use of university facilities for the continuing program, and the selecting of faculty from the CEA and the university to be assigned to this program.

b. Assessment of union member needs and concerns—Through interviews of individuals or groups, a selected team of CEA, CSLEA, and university representatives will hold discussions with union members designated by the union committee, to ascertain the kinds of needs and concerns which union members have, and to organize these into a presentable form for further discussion.

c. Recommendations for course of study—This phase will be carried on by committees in each of the two participating universities. These committees will attempt to relate the needs and concerns of the union members to broad content and subject matter in the humanities, and, on the basis of this relationship, to set up plans for the Orientation Residential sessions as well as for the 13 follow-up evening sessions. In addition to the faculties involved in each university, a representative from the union as well as from the CSLEA and Humanities Center will be involved at some point in this program planning.

Since two separate faculty committees will be concerned with planning, a smaller committee will be needed to pull together these two plans for development into one plan for the residential sessions. This can probably be done by a smaller inter-university committee which will work with representatives of the Union, the CSLEA, and the Humanities Center. Although some unity will be required in the orientation residential session, each participating university will be expected to develop its own program for the subsequent thirteen week discussions. Variety and differences in these programs will be encouraged.

(3) Orientation Residential Sessions—Based on plans made by the separate and joint faculty planning groups, a two-day residential Orientation Session will be held at some convenient—and inexpensive—spot.

The major purpose of these sessions will be to discuss and analyze the needs and concerns which have been identified and to tie these needs and concerns into broader areas and concepts related to the humanities. In this way the residential session will develop effective and meaningful "bridges" from the day to day concerns of the unionists to the basic subject matter to be covered in the continuing discussion groups.

Another purpose will be to expose faculty members in the humanities to the ideas and thinking of the union members so that the education of faculty members can also be broadened and liberalized. Participants at the residential sessions will be those unionists from the two areas who will be a part of the continuing program, faculty members from the two institutions who will be involved, other union and faculty members, and representatives from both the Humanities Center and CSLEA.

(4) The Continuing Seminar—Immediately after the residential seminars have been completed, two continuing seminars will begin, each to last for one quarter (a thirteen-week period). These seminars will consist of informal discussions centering around the discovered needs and concerns, but they will move on to broad considerations of basic concepts and learnings presented by the faculty groups.

Although both continuing seminars will be concerned with applying the background and knowledge of the humanities to the needs and concerns of the union members, it is quite likely that methods used, concepts emphasized, and content introduced will be different in the two continuing seminars. Since, however, both programs will be run in an urban setting it should be possible to weave into the program actual experiences and field trips as well as regular discussions.

(5) Evaluation and Followup in Residential Seminar—After the thirteen-week continuing seminars have been completed, a second residential seminar is provided for.

The purposes of this residential seminar are as follows:

a. To review and summarize the learning experience for both the faculty persons and unions involved.

b. To evaluate the strengths and shortcomings of the program as a whole and to compare the impact of the programs developed by the two university groups.

c. To formulate plans for further programs and followup both for the two groups of the initial program, and also for the transference of the program to other districts in the union, other unions, and other universities.

d. To set up some integrated machinery within the union whereby future programs can be carried forward by the union staff itself, working in cooperation with the local university groups, and the Humanities Center.

Insofar as possible those persons who participated in the first residential seminar will also participate in this followup and evaluation seminar.

Status and References

This is a pilot project currently in the discussion stage. Members of the College English Association and representatives of the United Packinghouse Workers from the Northeast have met in New York, and have reported favorably on their interest. Negotiations are continuing, and further discussions are in the offing. Information can be obtained from CSLEA or from Maxwell H. Goldberg, Executive Director of the Humanities Center, the University of Massachusetts.

THE TEST CENTERS PROJECT OF THE FUND FOR ADULT EDUCATION

The opportunities for continuing liberal education given to adults by colleges and universities through courses taught by their faculty members who are professional teachers and experts in subject matters need to be supplemented by courses designed for leadership by trained laymen, for two reasons. First, colleges and universities are operating within narrow limits: it is estimated that nearly 500,000 new college teachers will be needed between now and 1970 to take care of formal enrollment; not many teachers of young people in formal classes want to or can teach adults. Second, many adults want something different from courses stressing mastery of a specific subject matter and using the traditional relationship of teacher and student.

Impressed by the possibilities of courses of readings designed for discussion under lay leadership as exemplified by the programs of the Great Books Foundation and the American Foundation for Political Education, The Fund for Adult Education began its Experimental Discussion Project in 1951. This project tested three hypotheses:

1. That adult interest in study-discussion programs could be sustained during a series of ten to twelve meetings of two hours each.

2. That readings could be supplemented with a variety of audio-visual materials (filmstrips, films, recording, etc.) and that these, by providing the group with shared experiences at the time of the meeting itself, could bring about sharper attention to the theme of the discussion.

3. That relatively untrained lay discussion leaders—aided by specially prepared discussion-leader guides—could function effectively in a situation in which group members met over a considerable period of time, read the same background materials and shared the experience provided by audio-visual aids.

These hypotheses stood up well in the test. A range of study-discussion programs was developed and tested, more than ten of them successfully, all in the areas of the social sciences, the humanities and the arts. Each of these was developed by an authority or by authorities in the subject matter.

The educational aims of the programs are: (1) understanding and intellectual stimulation (rather than information or knowledge) and (2) the several communicative skills involved in discussion.

With these courses available and with considerable experience in dealing with problems involving content, method and leadership, the Fund turned to a test of the promotion and economics of such liberal adult education courses.

The question is, given a range of high-quality courses designed for study-discussion and lay-leadership, given the sponsorship and direction by a college or university, which trains the lay leaders, given the guidance and advice of a citizens' council, how close to self support can a program of liberal adult education come by means of income derived from fees paid by participants?

To find the answer to this question, the Fund in 1954 began the Test Center Project.

The Test Centers Project is under way in cooperation with colleges and universities in nine communities. The participating institutions are Whittier College, Whittier; the Pasadena Liberal Arts Center, Pasadena (on which are represented the California Institute of Technology, Occidental College, and Pasadena City College); the University of California in Los Angeles, all in California; the University of Arkansas in Little Rock; the University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri; Macalaster College, St. Paul-Minneapolis, Minnesota; the University of Akron, Akron, Ohio; the University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky; and the University of Virginia in Richmond.

A subsidy on a scale reducing over a four-year period has been given to each of these institutions to permit the employment of a full-time director. Volunteers, trained by the college or university, are used to help organize the groups and lead the discussions. An advisory citizens' council helps set policy, gives guidance and advice and aids in interpreting the project to the community.

The Fund keeps in close touch, gives grants for special purposes (such as local leadership training conferences and record-keeping), and conducts national residential institutes for the development of leadership. An institute was held for the orientation of the directors of the project and their administrators at the Inn, Rancho Santa Fe, California, in June, 1955. And a Community Leadership Institute was held for these and seven or eight of the key lay persons in each community during July, 1956, at the Stanley Hotel in Estes Park, Colorado.

In addition, a small grant has been given to the University of Utah to see what can be done on a state-wide basis by an extension department with its regular staff offering study-discussion courses for a fee.

It is hoped that the Test Centers Project and the Utah experience will demonstrate ways in which colleges and universities can offer and support liberal adult education programs in hundreds of American communities.

Courses for adults supervised by persons who are educators and expert in the subject matter and courses for adults which are based upon carefully prepared materials and led by trained lay persons supplement one another. The liberal education of adults needs the talents and energies of the faculties of higher education. But the lay-led courses are necessary so that liberal adult education may expand beyond the limits set by the number of educators and scholars able and available to teach adults. Such courses, moreover, are consistent with the goal of education, which is to encourage mature persons to assume command of their own education. And they aim at the development of leadership skills on which a free society depends.

Status and References

The study-discussion type of course led by lay persons is treated, historically and analytically, by Cyril O. Houle in the chapter "The Use of Print in Adult Education Agencies," in Adult Reading, the Fifty-fifth

Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, 1956.

A fuller account of the Experimental Discussion Project and the Test Centers Project will be found in the forthcoming "Report of Activities 1951-56" by The Fund for Adult Education, 320 Westchester Avenue, White Plains, New York.

The names and addresses of the nine Test Centers are:

Akron, University of	Harold Savides, Coordinator of Discussion Programs Institute for Civic Education University of Akron Akron 4, Ohio
Arkansas, University of	Mrs. Riddick Riffel, Director Center for Liberal Adult Education Division of General Extension University of Arkansas Little Rock, Arkansas
California, University of	Leonard Freedman, Coordinator Liberal Arts Discussion Programs University of California State University Extension Division Los Angeles 24, California
Kansas City, University of	Mrs. Dorothy R. Wilson, Director Continuing Education Center University of Kansas City Evening Division 5100 Rockhill Road Kansas City 10, Missouri
Louisville, University of	William S. Bowmer Division of Adult Education University of Louisville Louisville 8, Kentucky
Macalester College	Russel E. Myers, Director Macalester Liberal Arts Center for Adults Macalester College St. Paul 5, Minnesota
Pasadena Area	Mrs. Elizabeth D. Hansen, Director Pasadena Area Liberal Arts Center 482 East Union Street Pasadena 3, California
Virginia, University of	William L. Bowden, Director Richmond Center

Virginia, University of (continued)	University of Virginia Extension Division 1820 Monument Avenue Richmond 20, Virginia
Whittier College	Dr. Betty M. Unterberger, Director Liberal Arts Center for Adults Whittier College 310 Park Street Whittier, California

CHAPTER III

PROGRAMMING FOR BUSINESSMEN, PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS

The proliferation of courses offered in the interests of one group of specialists or another is evidence that there is no area where the university faces more pressures for continuing education. The new directions in programming take one of four general approaches. First, there are technical programs designed to keep individuals abreast of the most advanced developments in a particular field. Second, there are programs which are concerned primarily with human relations. Third, there is increasing emphasis on programs to prepare persons for top management positions. Finally, there are programs which concentrate on liberal education for specialists.

This chapter does not pretend to enumerate all new courses offered by universities, and this is particularly the case with technical programs. An attempt was made to select examples which were unusual and interesting, but in the final analysis they are illustrative rather than exhaustive. The joint Tax Conference developed by New York University and the University of Miami is an outstanding program in its particular area. The Management Program of the University of Wisconsin has been included because it represents a carefully planned over-all curriculum serving the varied specialized needs of the business community. The engineering programs of U.C.L.A. are an example of imaginative programming in the interests of the California engineering community and of programming which capitalizes on university resources in the interests of lifelong learning of engineers.

Human Relations are one of the more popular new directions. Such courses are offered both as separate units and as parts of curricula for management. Any number of examples might be given. The program developed by Mr. Leroy Wilke is not university-sponsored; it has been selected as an ingenious and different approach.

Leaders of American business and industry have become concerned about the problem of replacements for positions of top management. There is considerable apprehension that the intense specialization of promising young men makes them unprepared for the broader problems of leadership. The Harvard Advance Management Program is not new, but it has been included as a notable representative of one solution. At Harvard the program operates within the business frame of reference —that is, the individual's perspective is broadened from one department to the total company. At the University of California, the Graduate School of Engineering has a program for engineers who are preparing for executive positions.

If the businessman or specialist needs broadening, perhaps the place to go is not to the business school but to the liberal arts. In recent years there have been a number of experiments with this approach. These programs have one important characteristic in common: they assume that liberal arts cannot be presented in its conventional packages. They differ in their methods of relating the liberal arts to the realities of adult life in order to achieve the desired breadth and understanding. In many ways it is the most radical and the most exciting new direction. In some cases the programs are designed for management. The experiments sponsored by Bell Telephone, the Clark University Project, or the University of Chicago program for Federal Executives have been included as outstanding examples. In other cases, the targets are professions; the Institute for Journalists and the Dekalb Seminars for Teachers are cases in point.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY—UNIVERSITY OF MIAMI THE CONFERENCE ON BUSINESS AND TAX POLICY AT PALM BEACH, FLORIDA

This conference has been run annually in Florida since 1953, under the joint sponsorship of the University of Miami and the Division of General Education of New York University. The Institute on Federal Taxation at New York University had been running since 1942 as an annual ten-day institute for tax technicians from all over the country, but many business men have demanded that they be given an opportunity to learn about taxation in life, and that a similar, less technical institute be given for them.

Every successful business has tax problems. With the adoption of the new Internal Revenue Code, taxation became more involved and more important, and one of the basic duties of an alert business executive is to be constantly aware of implications of new tax laws for the operation and development of his business. The Conference on Business and Tax Policy offers him an opportunity to meet with outstanding tax men and business analysts, to discuss with them and his own colleagues the important issues confronting American business today, and in the light of these issues to plan for tomorrow.

The Conference is a forum. It is not intended to be a professional clinic to which businessmen come for professional advice on particular problems within their own companies. It is taken for granted that conferees already have well-qualified legal, accounting, and other professional counsel to analyze and solve these problems as they may arise. The Conference, therefore, scrupulously avoids any infringement upon the functions of these advisers.

Instead, the broad general problems of business policy are discussed in a setting of sustained and serious study, in the best tradition of the postgraduate university seminar. The Conference should enable the conferees to obtain new perspectives and insights and to return to their offices intellectually refreshed, with a clearer insight into the basic problems confronting them and their associates.

The Conference is organized around two daily sessions: a morning three-hour session in which the material is presented by lectures from a panel of experts; the afternoon session, from four o'clock to six, centers more around the conference participants, led in discussion by the tax and business experts who make up faculty. Conference planning emphasizes the free and open exchange of ideas.

The Conference is residential, and held in elegant surroundings, offering comfort, ample provision for recreation, and an opportunity to bring wives.

While there are no required readings, each participant is given a notebook containing all the lectures, organized so that note-taking is facilitated and the participant has a permanent record of the Conference.

The students are a limited number of business executives, usually presidents and executive vice-presidents. The "faculty" is a distinguished group of experts on business and taxation, who have usually combined teaching and business experience. Each "course" or topic has its own panel of experts from the faculty.

Status and References

These institutes have taken on permanent status. For information write Dean Dan Steinhof, University of Miami; Dean Paul McGhee, New York University School of General Education: or Mr. Harry Sellin, Executive Director, The Institute on Federal Taxation, New York University, 1 Washington Square North, New York 3, New York.

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM
(University of Wisconsin, Industrial Management Institute)

At the University of Wisconsin, its Industrial Management Institute has developed an effective series of programs designed to serve all branches of management—top, middle, and supervisory. All programs are planned with the advice of industrial leaders, and executives of participating companies have testified that they depend on the Institute to supplement their own efforts in the training of the management group. In its first twelve years the Management Development Program has grown from 23 offerings serving 28 companies and 386 persons to 127 offerings serving 1,283 companies and 5,491 persons. The programs are divided into the five basic divisions described below.

I - General Management Seminars

Today the extremely busy but alert business executive needs the latest information on developments and techniques in management but he cannot afford the time for an extended period of study. IMI has designed a special series of one-day seminars for executives, top management, and "rising young men" to enable them to keep on top of major trends in key areas in business.

At these seminars, nationally known speakers and leaders make presentations which become the basis for discussion. The University holds four such seminars on topics which are determined to be the most vital; individual bulletins are issued one month prior to each seminar.

II - Management Conferences

There is a similar need for up-to-the-minute discussions for middle management. Conferences are therefore aimed at providing middle management personnel with the latest techniques and developments in seven specific areas–Financial Management, Labor Relations Management, Office Management, Personnel Management, Plant Management, Purchasing Management, Sales Management.

Conferences are for one or two consecutive days. Each of the above area has its own series of conferences—in most cases seven per year; participants are encouraged to enroll in all conferences in a particular area, but each one is a separate unit. The content emphasizes practical information which will increase the efficiency of the operation in question. For example, the Office Management Conference for 1956-57 are Applying Electronics to Office Operations (2-day); Office Unions—What's Ahead? (1-day); Understanding People—Ourselves and Others (1-day); Keeping Office Methods Abreast of the Times and Using Your Creative Thinking to Improve Methods (2-day). Leaders are selected from faculties of university schools of business administration and from the business world.

III - Management Workshops

These are programs for specialists in such fields as Budgeting, Traffic Management, Purchasing Techniques, Industrial Editing. They are ideally suited to the development of understudies and trainees, designed as they are to provide specialists in business and industry with practical dollar-saving ideas, intensive skills training, details on latest developments, increased understanding of basic principles, and on-the-spot practice in latest techniques.

Workshops last from two to four days, with characteristic features being lively discussion, individual participation, and a strong emphasis on the practical. The twenty-one workshops include such topics as Controlling Production Costs, Market Research, Management of the Small Office, Industrial Insurance, and Executive Private Secretaries.

IV - Supervisory Institutes

Supervisory Institutes were created to meet the training needs of small organizations and to complement the training needs of larger firms. They provide an integrated program consisting of Human Relations plus advanced work in supervisory skills, cost reduction, and leadership and personal growth.

Institutes meet for three to five days. The first and basic unit is Human Relations for Foremen and Supervisors, and the second institute (Developing Supervisory Skills) strives to increase insight into problems of departmental planning, developing job pride, solving production problems. The third institute (The Supervisor's Role in Cost Reduction) offers the shop approach to cost reduction, whereas the final institute (Leadership and Personal Growth) is designed for the supervisor who has potentialities for promotion to more responsible jobs.

V - Business Institutes

Business institutes are set up in cooperation with a particular industry or trade association to meet its management training requirements. Planning and organization are cooperative.

ENGINEERING COURSES AT CALIFORNIA

It is a commonplace that modern technology requires countless special skills and knowledge, providing opportunities for new courses which may range from complex to basic principles. To mention two random examples, at Newark College of Engineering there is a series of offerings which prepares the individual for plastic engineering. At the University of Wisconsin there is concern about jobs assigned to engineers which might be handled by properly trained technicians, and the department is considering the development of courses for technicians especially designed to free engineers for more important tasks.

In the face of the multiplicity of new directions, it is difficult to choose any one of them but three courses have been selected from the annual program of University Extension, UCLA. They represent interesting developments in continuing education on engineering frontiers. It should be made clear, however, that they have been chosen as illustrative of new directions for imaginative programming in engineering.

I. Utilization of Solar Energy

Civilization requires energy. Without it no wheel of industry or commerce could turn; indeed without it life could not exist. The source of all our energy is the sun; and although in the past most energy has come from burning natural fuels, and, although development of nuclear energy holds great promise for the future, in terms of long range development we cannot ignore the energy we receive directly from the sun. The rate of technological advance will cause irresistible pressure for the utilization of solar energy. To prepare for and hasten the day we must encourage inquiring minds and attract their interest to the problems which bar us from using this enormous potential. This course aims to provide an integrated course on solar energy; to acquaint people with the status of developments in this field; and to introduce them to people active in it.

Offered for credit, it requires a Bachelor's Degree in Engineering or Science, or its equivalent. It consists of a series of twelve lectures on these topics: Solar Energy–New Frontier, The Availability of Solar Energy, Collection of Solar Energy, The Concentration of Solar Energy, The Conversion of Solar Energy to Mechanical Energy, Photochemical Processes for the Utilitization of Solar Energy, The Conversion of Solar Energy to Electrical Energy, The Economics of the Application of Solar Energy, Application to Heating, Cooling, and Air Conditioning, The Distillation of Sea Water and Other Low Temperature Applications, High Temperature Applications of Solar Energy, The Outlook for Applied Solar Energy—A Resume.

Lecturers come from The University of California, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, University of Wisconsin, California Institute of Technology, University of Minnesota, University of Illinois, Bell Telephone Laboratories, and Standard Research Institute.

II. Guided Missile Engineering

Guided missile engineering constitutes an outstanding example of the "systems" method of approach to problems–the integration of many complex engineering fields and many interacting components into the final compatible design. This course attempts (1) to provide unclassified information needed as one step in the training of supervisory personnel who by reason of their assignments must have an overall picture of the engineering system; (2) to offer an introduction of each branch of engineering science that underlies the guided missile art; and (3) more especially, to offer an opportunity to observe the problems of interconnection and the considerations of harmonious design in a poly-engineering field.

The course consists of eighteen weekly lectures by experts from Hughes Research and Development Laboratories and Ramo-Wooldridge Corporation. Topics in the series are The Missile System and Its Components, Missile Aerodynamics, Rockets, Ramjets, Aerodynamic Stability, Feedback and Servo Theory, Navigation Principles, Gyroscopy, Analog Computers, Digital Computers, Radio Propagation, Microwaves, Radar, Random Phenomena and the Precision of Guidance and Control, Information Theory, Trajectory Analysis and Flight Simulators, The Integration of Design, Guided Missile Testing and Reliability, Description of Actual Missiles—A Review of Unclassified Published Literature.

III. Simulation and Theory of Traffice Flow

Since World War II, the use of high-speed computers has developed to a point where they are being widely applied to scientific, engineering, and business problems. Recent work by several research agencies has shown that the traffic flow problem may be advantageously attacked by simulation using high-speed computors. The University of California has developed this program to give traffic engineers a working knowledge of the application of high-speed computers to problems of traffic flow, especially the solution of traffic flow problems by simulation technique.

This is a semi-residential, two-week institute; classes are held on the UCLA campus, but individuals are responsible for their own housing at hotels or motels nearby. The course consists of lectures, demonstrations, consultation periods, outside reading, and problem assignments. The faculty is drawn from UCLA staff, authorities from other universities, research agencies, and practicing traffic engineers. A degree in engineering or physical sciences is prerequisite, but no previous knowledge of computer techniques is presumed.

HUMAN RELATIONS FOR LOWER ECHELON SUPERVISORS

(Leroy Wilke, Humble Oil Co.)

As director of an educational program for supervisors at the lower echelons, Mr. Wilke has developed a program with two distinct parts: on the one hand the participants are given the history of management-labor relations, law, and company policy; on the other, there are human relations, which Mr. Wilke prefers to call ethics.

In handling the question of human relations, Mr. Wilke did more than change the name; he looked around for a method to stimulate interest and enhance the learning experience. His solution is a series of monthly meetings at which he presents motion pictures obtained from the Teachers Film Council. The pictures are generally first-rate commercial productions, excerpted by the Film Council so that they are not too long for class sessions. Treasure Island and Les Miserables are illustrative of the types of production used.

The films are used as a basis for discussion; prior to the showing participants receive material calling attention to points to be looked for and raising issues for later consideration. In general, dramatic situations or character portraits involving ethical values are related to supervisory functions. Sometimes this is done directly; in The Conquest, personal characteristics of Napoleon and Talleyrand—and their scales of values—are applied directly to familiar situations at Humble Oil. In other cases—as in The Good Job—there is no direct tie-up with the company, but the discussion, involving ethical judments and understanding of character, is relevant to the interpersonal responsibilities of supervision.

In Dewey's terms, Mr. Wilke's program is based on common sense rather than on science, and, on such grounds, it might be criticized as below university level. This does not belie the fact that he has demonstrated considerable skill and imagination in creating an approach to education appropriate to adults and to the educational job to be accomplished—something not always present in a conventional academic approach.

THE ADVANCED MANAGEMENT PROGRAM
(Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration)

Business leaders have shown increasing interest in the development of management personnel. But under the best of conditions it is difficult, if not impossible, to carry through a company plan seeking to extend the vision of executives beyond department areas in which they work. The Advanced Management Program is designed to help business and industry solve this problem. The program is designed to make participants better in their jobs and to prepare them for advancement by (1) giving them a broad view of business problems transcending the department where an individual works, and (2) giving training which makes the man more effective as an executive in any position.

A session lasts 12 1/2 weeks, with regular course meetings six days a week. There are six courses of study:

(1) Business Policy covers the field of policy making and administration at the top level; a major objective is to develop the habit of thinking about business problems from an overall point of view.

(2) Administrative Practices provides an opportunity for exchange of experiences in administrative problems arising from interpersonal relationships in business organizations.

(3) Business and the American Society examines some of the social and economic forces which influence policy decisions of administrators.

(4) Cost and Financial Administration studies administrative use of accounting data and budget procedures as an aid to management control.

(5) Market Development and Sales Policies tries to develop a comprehension of marketing as an aid to maintaining high level national economy, to increase the understanding of nonmarketing executives of their sales colleagues' problems and to sharpen the skills of the marketing executive.

(6) Problems in Labor Relations analyzes trade unions as institutions and considers problems of negotiation, administration of contracts, and personnel relations in the unionized plant.

Teaching is largely or wholly by the case method, which uses studies of the real business situations executives are facing and acting in today. The development of thought is from a concrete, particular situation to the broad principle. Formal classes are supplemented by guest speakers, seminars with faculty to pursue special interests in greater detail, and field trips. If "residential" is not too narrowly defined, this program is residential in that participants are urged to live in dormitories provided for them and to dine together at the faculty club; emphasis is placed on the values which can be achieved by such extracurricular association.

Status

The 1956-57 program represents the thirtieth and thirty-first sessions of the project. In a typical year, over one hundred companies (some of them foreign), government agencies, and the U.S. Armed Forces send representatives.

ENGINEERING EXECUTIVE PROGRAM

(Extension Division, University of California, Los Angeles)

The engineering school faces a constant tug-of-war between pressures for more intensive specialized training on the one hand, and for broader, more general education on the other. At the undergraduate level one solution is offered in the form of a sixth year; M.I.T. is experimenting on a variation of this solution with a double major program, in which forty per cent of the student's work will be in humanities and social science, and which culminates in a project combining the approaches of engineering and liberal arts.

At least for our times, however, the problem relates to adults—to engineers already active in the field—because the development of executives for industry is a constant and pressing problem in modern society. In our increasingly technological environment, there is a growing need for engineers equipped to handle the complex responsibilities of the executive function.

At UCLA the Engineering Executive Program is designed to meet the needs of engineers who, within the next decade, will fill top executive positions in industry: those men who will be making policy decisions affecting the welfare of their organization, their community, and our industrial economy. One of the interesting aspects of the project is the extent to which it capitalizes on the skills and knowledge of engineering and applies them to the executive function.

In general the program is designed to emphasize the applications of quantitative and qualitative techniques to the executive function. Quantitative techniques are based on the application of scientific methodology to administrative problems—techniques which have met with surprising success. The purpose is not to make the individual a specialist in quantitative methodology, but to enable him to use intelligently those specialists who are available to him. The program recognizes that there are qualitative techniques—intangible factors which do not lend themselves to quantitative analysis—and a considerable portion of the time is devoted to these qualitative aspects of the decision-making function.

Specifically, the program will

(1) Acquaint the engineer with various significant functions of the the business enterprise, with emphasis on their interrelationship.

(2) Relate the individual's company to a broader environment—industry, national and international communities, natural resources, government, man power, urban redevelopment, and industry relocation.

(3) Review developments of modern engineering and acquaint the participant with newer analytical tools.

(4) Study problems of group behavior.

(5) Analyze specific industrial projects and activities to demonstrate application of the program's methodology.

The method of instruction is appropriate to a mature student group. The case method predominates, supplemented by lectures, field trips, projects, and discussion. Guest specialists supplement the regular staff. For economy of student time, the program is offered in late afternoon and evening, one day per week for a period of four semesters. Successful completion leads to a Master's Degree in Engineering.

Status and References

The program is offered by the Department of Engineering and the Graduate Division, UCLA, in cooperation with the Extension Division. The second annual offering of the program commenced in September, 1956. Complete details, upon which this summary is based, are available in the brochure, Lifelong Learning (March 12, 1956), published weekly by University Extension, UCLA.

PROGRAMS OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS EXECUTIVES

I

Programs of A. T. & T. and The Bell System
(Pennsylvania, Dartmouth, Williams, Swarthmore)

II

Institute of Liberal Studies for Executives
(Clark University)

Much has been written and said about the ever increasing number of programs in the liberal arts for business and industrial executives. No matter what the program—be it the experimental series developed by the Bell System and A. T. & T., the Pomona College Summer Program of 1956, the Vassar Institute for Women in Business, the Clark University Institute of Liberal Studies for Executives, the Memphis program for local executives, or the climate-clearing conferences of the Humanities Center for the Liberal Arts in an Industrial Society (formerly the CEA Institute)—they are all rooted in common principles.

First, they represent industry's increasing awareness that merely technically trained personnel are not adequate to meet industry's dynamic needs. Industry demands not only specialists and "broad-gauged" persons, but also those who are both specialists and broad-gauged.

Second, they demonstrate a growing concern for persons who, for the good of the society, must have their horizons broadened and their lives enriched for the new leisure and for growing personal responsibilities as citizens.

Third, they indicate some validity to the idea often stated by the late John Schwertman that liberal education can very profitably come after specialized training and years on the specialized job rather than before; that experience lends a new and valuable dimension to adult learning.

Fourth, they make clear the growing tendency to look upon liberal education as the way to achieve the much discussed broad intellectual base needed for personal growth.[1]

A. T. & T. System

Perhaps the best known of the several programs of liberal education for executives is the original Bell telephone experiment under the auspices of Pennsylvania Bell and the University of Pennsylvania. This course ran for two full semesters (1953-54), and graduated its first class in June, 1954. Conceived as an experiment, it has been much studied and much reported. Moreover, it has not only been continued for three more years, but has also spawned three other experimental projects, one each at Dartmouth (summer, 1956, for eight weeks), Williams (summer, 1956, for eight weeks), and Swarthmore (conducted for the first time in the fall semester of 1956, for a full academic semester). The University of Pennsylvania Program, the Williams and the Dartmouth programs will be continued, according to spokesmen for the A. T. & T. system. The Swarthmore experiment was to continue at least two semesters.

Important to the understanding of these programs is the fact that they represent an industrial giant's investigations into the validity of liberal arts as a method for developing leaders the company feels it wants and must develop through a program of adult education. The programs were conceived in a spirit of experimentation and have continued as such; hence, there have been considerable testing and evaluating built into each activity.

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1. Such programs for business, technical, and industrial personnel at various levels are developing at an accelerated pace. Information is available from many places. The Waussau Center of the University of Wisconsin has received requests for an in-service educational program for local men in industry, business and professions, based on the liberal arts approach (information available from Theodore Shannon of the U. of Wisconsin). The College English Association Institutes have been a form of liberal education for college teachers and business leaders, working together (information available from Maxwell H. Goldberg, U. of Massachusetts). The Pomona College program, under the direction of economist Floyd Bond, was reported in Time, July 30, 1956. At Hillyer College in Hartford, the liberal arts seminars for third and fourth year adult students recruited from industry are significant (information available from Dean Ernest Dudley). See also the Memphis program reported under the section on community groups; in the section on liberal arts, see the Institute on Human Issues Today for Labor Leaders, the Vassar Institute for Women in Business, and the DeKalb Project for Teachers above.

Bell is seeking the answers to the following questions, and their experiments are conducted accordingly:[2]

(1) Why do some persons stop growing intellectually and emotionally while others continue to grow?

(2) Why do different individuals stop growing at different ages?

(3) Why do different individuals choose different paths to growth?

(4) Why is it that some people never challenge assumptions and others do?

(5) Why do some managers respond better to long-range thinking than others?

(6) What is the effect on the individuals and subsequent results for the company of interchanges of educational experiences among different company groups?

(7) What is the relative importance of content, social climate, and individual motivation in what the individual gets out of these educational experiences?

(8) What is the optimal time for these programs to achieve the desired impact?

To answer these questions, the company has been engaged in a thorough testing and interview program, with appropriate controls.

The four programs represent not only differences in duration of the experience—the range is from eight weeks to two semesters—but also a difference in subject matter. In general they combine lectures, discussions, readings, and exposure to special guests, but each program is different. For the most part the company has stated its goals and turned over to a school the problems of working out curriculum; the school's job was to try to meet the stated needs of the company, and each school interpreted it differently. Let us examine each briefly.

(1) At Pennsylvania, where the program lasts for a full academic year, the subjects are grouped into four major fields: history, science, philosophy, and the arts. In the beginning students get a "tool" course

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[2] These questions are taken from a talk delivered by Gorden T. Bowden of A. T. & T. at the New England Regional Conference of the AUEC, October 20, 1956.

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in practical logic and a course in economic theory; Following this is a long program—until Easter—in "humanistic disciplines" (art, music, literature). They then begin to tie up knowledge with courses related to the present-day world: American Civilization, Modern Architecture and City Planning, Political Science and International Relations, and Ulysses.[3]

(2) At Williams six courses dealing with the social, cultural, and political history of the United States were given during eight weeks.[4]

(3) At Dartmouth a program was developed to center around the great issues of our times. Eight weeks were devoted to three interrelated courses: Traditional and Modern Values, The Individual and the State, and Science and Man.[5]

(4) At Swarthmore, where the program is being tested on a one-semester basis, the theme is, "The Individual in His Society: Dilemma of Civilized Man." The curriculum divides into three basic areas:

(a) Philosophy (practical logic, ethics) . . . "To teach them not only to think, but to think about things that matter."

(b) The Arts (literature, art and architecture, appreciation of music).

(c) Social Sciences (politics and international relations, social and economic history, cultural anthropology, social psychology).[6]

In summary, the Bell-A. T. & T. programs represent one large company's attempt to experiment with programs of liberal education havine some factors common to all: First, they are all liberal arts. Second, they are all residential, albeit for different lengths of time. Third, they all deal with what A. T. & T. refers to as "third" and "fourth" level management.[7] Fourth, they are all experimental. And fifth, they are all being tried again.

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3. From interview with Mr. E. H. Weigle, Assistant Vice President-Personnel, Pennsylvania Bell.

4. From Dartmouth Alumni Magazine, October, 1956.

5. Ibid.

6. From tentative syllabus prepared by Bruce Dearing, Swarthmore, Director of the Swarthmore program.

7. In the A. T. & T. system, the first level is the bottom level of the management hierarchy. The higher the number, the higher the position.

References

Information can be obtained from a number of sources. See especially "Industry Calls on the Liberal Arts," the Dartmouth Alumni Magazine, October, 1956; "How Can we Broaden the Telephone Man's Horizon?" by John Markle II, Bell Telephone Magazine, Autumn, 1955; "Bell Telephone's Experiment in Education," by E. Digby Baltsell, Harper's Magazine, March, 1955; "Widening the Scope of Management Development: The Institute of Humanistic Studies for Executives," by John Markle II, General Management Series #178, American Management Association; "Emancipating the Executives," by Morse Peckham, Chicago Review, Special Issue, 1954, Volume 8, Number 3; "Why Businessmen Are Going Back to School," by Vance Packard, American Magazine, September, 1955.

II

The Institute of Liberal Studies for Executives
(Clark University)

While the Bell experiment is organized by and through a single company and recruits its students from various segments of the system and all parts of the country, the program at Clark has been conceived and developed by the university, and is designed primarily to serve the local community, or at most its regional territory. The plans call for a "commuter's" program with arrangements available at the local hotel for some "boarding" students. It is, therefore, not residential, and the students will operate on a five-day week.

The Institute will be a three-month, full time educational program devoted exclusively to liberal and humanistic studies. As in the Bell programs, participants are to be given time off, and the program is to be paid for by the company. The students are to represent "middle management." The cost—$1200 for tuition plus full salary to participants.

The basic objective of this program is to expose young business executives to a core of liberal studies with the hope that such studies will help to prepare them for more intelligent, mature and effective business leadership.

The program is based on the concept that liberal studies liberate individuals from confining habits of thought, attitudes and experience.

It is also based on the faith that liberally educated individuals will be able to approach problems more imaginatively, with more intelligent decisions and, in general, will be better prepared to initiate and administer successful business policies with vision and responsibility.

More specifically, the program has the following goals:

(1) To sharpen the executive's critical facilities and ways of thinking.

(2) To familiarize him with some of the basic ideas in science, the social sciences and the humanities; and their interrelationships;

(3) To help the executive understand himself, his community, his nation and the world in which he lives;

(4) To enrich his life by providing him with new aesthetic experiences and giving him new ways of evaluating those experiences; and

(5) To encourage his continuing the process of liberal self-education throughout his lifetime.

The program is organized around three broad themes which bring together materials of a fundamental character and which cut across the lines of conventional subject matter: Man and Nature; The Individual and Society; and The United States and the World. Each of these themes is approached from several points of view and reflects some basic thinking in science, the social sciences and the humanities. In addition series of less formal programs are planned to center around the fine arts and music.

The staff of the Institute is drawn from the faculty of Clark, other leading colleges and universities and is supplemented by numerous outstanding guest lecturers with ideas of paramount importance in many fields of human thought and endeavor. Each major course unit is in charge of an instructor who directs the day-to-day discussions, while the overall educational activity is under the supervision of the Director.

Teaching methods vary from course to course. In general an attempt is made to rely increasingly upon seminars and discussions, with reading materials selected from a list of important books dealing with some of the central issues of the program.

Special facilities, including a classroom, lounge, library and seminar room are provided by the University for the use of the Institute; participants are invited to use the resources of the Clark University Library and are welcome to attend University functions of interest to them. Area libraries, museums and cultural activities may be employed to the fullest extent.

Status and References

The first Institute was to begin February 1,1957, under the direction of Robert F. Campbell, Associate Professor of American History at Clark, assisted by Robert N. Beck, Associate Professor of Philosophy. A prospectus is available at Clark. See also "Wide Horizons for the Mind of Management," by Howard B. Jefferson, President, Clark University, *Industry*, September, 1956.

THE EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM FOR FEDERAL ADMINISTRATORS

University College, University of Chicago

Behind this program is the principle that administrative personnel can best be served by being provided with an education in theory rather than practice, with liberal education rather than technical. With this training, it is assumed, federal administrators will become better executives.

In cooperation with the Chicago Federal Personnel Council, the aims, scope and content of the Executive Development Program have undergone a recent revision. The program attempts to provide federal administrations with a series of classes based upon the *study of theoretical public administration.* This emphasis represents an effort to affect a merger between the best elements of theory and practice to aid federal administrators in their administrative work. Designed to supplement the programs which individual federal agencies carry on for themselves, the various seminars concentrate on those administrative insights without which the specialized knowledge available through agency programs may lose significance and direction. The program has been designed and adapted from several of the major departments of the Social Science Division of the University, and especially from the Department of Political Science.

The program is divided into two distinct categories, each of which contains four or more seminars. The first category deals with various conceptions of administration as a field of study and as a field of activity. Specific seminars are concerned with the relation of administration to its political superstructure; the anatomy of administration, i.e., organization; the American administrative system and comparative administrative practice. The second category deals with various skills of administration, centering around decision-making as the heart of the administrative process. Various seminars deal with the psychology and sociology of decision-making, with uses and limitations of science in validating factual administrative decisions, with uses of ethics in the validation of decisions, and with communications and human relations in the administrative organization.

Each seminar is led by a regular member of the University staff together with consultants and subject matter specialists from government agencies and other universities.

Each seminar is conducted by discussion, with assignments of approximately 25 pages of reading matter providing the basis for discussion. Reading materials are generally available either in inexpensive texts or in mimeographed form.

The seminars emphasize principles on which practice is based. There are ten seminars, of which five are required for the certificate.

In addition to the regular seminar classes, there is opportunity for optional attendance at a lecture series on "Administration and the Social Sciences" and at a weekend conference at Lake Geneva, Wisconsin.

Status and References

The program is now in its third year, and has just undergone a considerable revision as a result of cooperative activity between the Chicago Federal Personnel Council and University College. For further information see the Announcement of the Executive Development Program for Federal Administrators of the University of Chicago, Sidney Mailick, Director.

THE INSTITUTE FOR JOURNALISTS

Joint Sponsors:
University of California, Berkeley
Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults

The journalist faces many pressures in the pursuit of his profession. His work is hard and the pace is fast; increasingly, as a result of mass production of news, his assignment may become very specialized and routine. At the end of a day he is probably fatigued both intellectually and physically; as one journalist put it, "I want to read a lot of things, but I never get a chance except on my three-week vacation." He faces pressures coming from his intimate relations with humanity, and with its majesty interlaced by frustrations, cynicism and compromised ideals. These pressures can make him prisoner, confined by deadlines and a narrow specialty. This is not to say that the profession is without challenge and satisfaction, but it does suggest that it can be illiberal.

The Institute for Journalists attempts to provide an educational experience for journalists which will be liberating or "re-creative," to borrow a term from Dr. Horace Kallen. The re-creation should provide freedom from the bondage of routine; it should keep the journalist alive and growing, assist him to live with and face the severe pressures of his profession. It should be an experience which starts with areas of concern related to his profession but which carries him beyond immediate concerns to some understanding and appreciation of their wider social, cultural, and human implications.

Although specific details would be dependent upon the local situation, development of the institute envisages the following procedure:

(1) Establishment of cooperative relations with local newspaper publishers and journalist associations.

(2) Identification of journalists' concerns and problems. In this connection it is assumed that a certain amount of interviewing would be necessary, and that the concerns would change from place to place and time to time.

(3) Designation of an interdisciplinary faculty team to develop organizing principles and material for the seminar, so designed as to provide the broadening function specified in the objectives.

(4) The institute should be conducted primarily as a continuing seminar, preferably on a released-time basis, one day per week for three to six months. Residential weekends, perhaps at the beginning and the end of the program, would be desirable.

Status

The University of California, Berkeley, is undertaking an experimental program following this general plan. Reports and evaluation will be forthcoming from the Center. Assuming it is successful, it should be effective both with other groups of journalists and with other professions.

NORTHERN ILLINOIS LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR PRACTICING TEACHERS

("The Dekalb Project")

In an age of specialization, teacher training, particularly beyond the undergraduate level, has become increasingly specialized. Teachers or would-be teachers return to the university to study education or the content of their particular discipline, and there is thus the danger of teachers' becoming, like other specialists, illiberally educated. Since they are the teachers of youth, it is important that they be liberally educated—because some of the values of liberal education may rub off on their students. The assumptions behind the Dekalb project are that a program of graduate work or in-service training for teachers should include some liberally educative experiences, and that such experiences are not necessarily obtained from so-called liberal arts courses.

Broadly, the purpose of this experimental program is to fill gaps in and enlarge the liberal education of classroom teachers. Specifically, its objectives are to relate the liberal education of the teacher to his task as an educator, to provide stimulus and perhaps an enduring motivation for a continuous personal growth in liberal education.

At Northern Illinois College, where the experiment is under way, the program is to be directed by the Dean of the Graduate School, assisted by a Policy Committee and a Curriculum Committee. The Policy Committee will be composed of representatives of the Department of Education, liberal arts faculty from many disciplines, and public school educators, representing school boards, administrative officials, and teachers. It will be responsible for developing general plans, overseeing the operation, and establishing procedures for evaluation.

The Curriculum Committee, of about four members, will also be interdisciplinary, and will develop organizing principles for a common curriculum applicable to rural, urban, and suburban communities. One basic approach will be selected to serve as the organizing principle or theme for the seminar. Four approaches are being considered: (1) the concepts approach, in which selected ideas (the concept of change-permanence, for example) are applied to different problems or community situations; (2) the problems approach, in which seminars are built around general problems illustrated by case studies derived from the experiences of the seminar participants; (3) the topic approach, in which a series of topics (for example, the role of the critic in our society or the role of non-conformists in art, politics, etc.) become the themes for exploration; (4) the philosophic approach, in which seminars examine the values we operate by both as teachers and as individuals.

The final course, as developed by the Curriculum Committee, will be taken into the field by an instructional team which has been oriented by the Committee. Those participants working for a degree will be given graduate credit either in education or in their field of specialization.

Status and References

Committees have been appointed and several meetings have been held. A preliminary report on the program and curriculum is planned for June, 1957, and a field program is scheduled tentatively for the fall of 1957.

At present there is no written material other than this brief statement. For further information consult Northern Illinois State College or the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults. At Northern Illinois, Professor Virgil Alexander is Program Coordinator.

CHAPTER IV

PROGRAMMING FOR COMMUNITY GROUPS AND INTERESTS

The problem of education for community groups and interests is complicated by considerable uncertainty and difference of opinion over the definition of community, particularly insofar as it affects university activity and the university responsibility to community projects. The programs in this chapter represent a few definitions of the community and possible tupes of curriculum which might be accepted as university responsibilities.

Another approach is to provide educational services for special organizations in the community—projects at the University of Nebraska and the University of Chicago are examples included here. Or there is the total community approach, which can be an action project or a cultural service. Action projects in a town (or a neighborhood, in the case of large cities) are myriad, but their effectiveness and the extent to which the university should participate in them are still open to discussion. One example, illustrating the general approach, has been included here.

The university faces a number of difficult questions when it comes to providing cultural services or liberal arts on a community basis. The so-called liberal arts disciplines often are used in connection with action projects; thus, they are employed for such purposes as city planning, surveys of economic or physical resources, urban social problems, and so on. Universities offer liberal arts for their own sake to individuals or to groups, but it is a different matter when the potential audience is the community. Probably the oldest cultural services of this sort are series of lectures or concerts. The Antioch Area Theater is an example of one new direction which this venerable form of adult education can take; it was organized five years ago by Antioch College as a summer project which brought Shakespeare to the Ohio hinterlands around Yellow Springs. In 1956 the college organized a second base of operations at Toledo, 140 miles away.

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In the final analysis, however, it is closer to the truth to admit that new directions in liberal arts remain to be developed. The Test Cities Project of the Fund for Adult Education represents one significant experiment contributing to that end. Two of its programs have been included in this volume—the San Bernadino Project in Chapter VI and the Memphis seminars in this chapter. At the present time the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults is working along two lines which its staff believe suggest possible new directions. One of these would use liberal arts for development of better community leadership. This can be compared to the Bell Telephone experiment except for its emphasis on community rather than business. John Walker Powell represents one method of implementation; he proposes a seminar for the power group in which they would examine their responsibility to the community. And, although it does not deal with power, a sense of community responsibility appears to be an indirect outcome of the liberal education in the Memphis seminar.

The other line proposed by the Center is based on a notion developed by C. Wright Mills in Notes and Essays number 9, "Mass Society and Liberal Education." Mills believes it is imperative to develop a number of liberal publics in order to offset the obliteration of individuals by the mass media. No programs have been designed to implement this concept.

THE NEBRASKA SCHOOL FOR COMMUNITY LIVING

(The University of Nebraska)

Behind this program is the belief in a need for educational programs designed for farm and small-town youth between the ages of 18 and 25 who are already out of school and do not intend going to a college or university, and for whom educational opportunities, other than vocational training through agricultural extension, are not available.

Its purpose is to provide an opportunity for out-of-school Nebraska youth to develop their leadership qualities, broaden their cultural horizons, and enjoy good fellowship. The course seeks only to help young people understand more fully the communities of which they are a part, to assist them in developing their various leadership capacities in order that they might contribute more abundantly to the life of those communities, and to broaden their cultural horizons for the enrichment of personal and group living.

Patterned after the Scandinavian Residential Folk Schools (primarily for the same age group), the program is limited to 15 young men and 15 young women from Nebraska farms and small towns. It lasts for four weeks. In 1956, it took place from February 5 to March 2.

The courses are not for credit, and include sessions on:

- Understanding Your Community
- Public Speaking
- How to Lead a Meeting
- National and International Affairs ("World Affairs Are Your Affairs")
- Handicrafts
- Folk Dancing and Square Dancing
- Workshop on Program Planning
- Getting Along with Others
- Group Singing
- Literary Evening
- Music Evening
- Making the Most of Myself

The program is heavily scheduled, Monday through Friday. Participants are required to be housed in private homes selected by the University, and are urged to spend the free weekends at Lincoln, where the University is located.

Status and References

The program was made possible by a grant from the Woods Charitable Fund, Inc., of Lincoln, Nebraska. For information, write Dr. Otto G. Hoiberg, Coordinator of Community Service, University Extension Division, The University of Nebraska, Lincoln 8, Nebraska. Other programs in this general category are of interest, also. One of these is a series of residential adult programs for community leadership developed by Myles Horton, Director of the Highlander Folk School, Monteagle, Tennessee, where emphasis is placed on understanding the community leader's role in the solution of current fundamental problems.

THE HUMAN RELATIONS CENTER
(University of Chicago)

Community leaders need to be provided with the basic understandings which underlie successful activities in the community. These programs are devised to help provide knowledge directly related to the skills which a student's work in the field makes necessary. The Human

Relations Center devotes full time to study and development of appropriate programs.

The Human Relations Center has three broad objectives: (1) to provide training for leaders of voluntary citizen action groups attempting to promote better human relations and community improvement; (2) to experiment with methods of university—community cooperation in adult education; (3) to provide a setting where volunteer leaders, trained practitioners, and students in training for professional leadership or research in the field of community development can work together to find solutions to some of their problems as they exist in Chicago neighborhoods.

The Human Relations Center offers a variety of courses and training programs, with special conferences, workshops, and research planned on request. Conferences already scheduled include: (1) The role of mass media in improving community human relations; (2) Conference for professional and lay persons concerned with neighborhood improvement through block organizations; and (3) Conference on community human relations—theory and practice.

Consultant services are available to public agencies and private groups. Agencies utilizing these services have included the Board of Education, Chicago Hospital Council, and a number of community councils and block organizations in changing neighborhoods.

Among the courses offered by the Human Relations Center are:

Group Psychology for Executives and Administrators, in which principles of group behavior and control are developed experimentally.

Training for Community Leadership, for block workers, local PTA members, precinct captains, board members, and citizens concerned with the improvement of neighborhood living.

Family Living in the Urban Community.

Creative Activities for Children and Youth.

Citizen Seminars on Community Problems, a group of programs organized around important social issues and planned and presented jointly by citizens and experts.

Orienting Newcomers to Chicago.

Training for Neighborhood Leaders

Status and References

These programs appear to be successful. Information can be obtained from Morris Haimowitz, Director, The Human Relations Center, University College, The University of Chicago. A similar program has been developed by Kenneth Benne, Director, The Human Relations Center, Boston University. Also Alice Rice Cook has been developing interesting human relations workshops for women at the New School for Social Research in New York.

COMMUNITY ACTION PROJECTS

(A General Treatment)

Democracy as a method of doing things has become more and more difficult as the age of technology has advanced, but it is still the most powerful social force that can be invoked; certainly the American Heritage of a free society cannot survive without it—we must build an environment within the framework of the modern age in which people of all kinds can work together. The general objective of community action projects is to organize the community to act as a group so as to remedy basic factors undermining the community and to strengthen community life through concerted effort.

Although the approach will vary from one project to another, a general pattern can be suggested.

(1) Self-study—All segments of the community must be involved in this first step. The study should include an overall analysis, identification of real problems and data about them, development of a sound plan for community action, and the gaining of better understanding of fellow community members as human beings.

(2) Preparation for Action—A committee should be organized to act for the total community, not for some special interests. Once it is formed, its first task is its own training as an action group. (This involves the techniques of group dynamics.) As soon as possible the group should select and undertake its first objective.

(3) Community Acts—The first community project must be carried out, with action proceeding from there.

Status and References

There are many examples of community action projects and considerable literature about them. This general description is based on a project in Eldorado, Illinois as reported by Robert W. Hoskins in Community Acts (Illinois College Community Action Series, No. 2).

THE INSTITUTE FOR EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP
THE ADULT EDUCATION COUNCIL OF MEMPHIS
at Southwestern University

This is a community-wide program for representatives of local business and industry. It appears to be a short form or local adaptation of the principles behind the Bell experiments, except that it represents a cross-section of local business establishments, has no representation of national companies, and does not require a leave of absence as do the Bell programs and the Clark program (see section on Business, Professional and Technical). The goal is a liberal education for junior and senior executives who are now or are going to be community leaders.

It is a two-year program for some twenty-five business executives —mostly first or second line—sent by their firms (businesses, stores, hotels). Each student registers for attendance at a 9 A.M. to 12 Noon session every Monday morning, with a residential weekend at the beginning and end of each year, and an occasional all-day session. The fee for the program is $500 per student, payable in full in advance.

The first year program is concerned with "Man and His Life in Inter-Human Relations," and includes the following major sections: The Liberating Art, Man and the Arts, and Human Relations.

The second year program is aimed at "Man and His Life as Affected by Science and Technology," and will include the following: Design for Today, Economic Affairs, and American Civilization.

Status and References

The program, now in its second year, is meeting with enthusiasm from participants, who have demanded more sessions and occasional involvement of their spouses. Information can be obtained from Granville Davis at the Adult Education Council, Memphis, Tennessee.

PROGRAM FOR THE POWER GROUP

(A Proposal for Baltimore by John Walker Powell)

That part of the iceberg of power which shows above the surface of Baltimore consists of a few men who among them manage the organizational life of the town: they hold the board memberships, run the campaigns, manage the Coordinating Council and the Council of Social Agencies and the Association of Commerce and the Junior Association; they buy the ball teams and hold the power of consent over schools and parks and housing and Right Opinion generally. In their business capacity, they are mostly top management. In their Public Service capacity, they are the "management" of Baltimore.

Dr. Powell discussed with a few of these people the curious problem of "leadership" represented by the group, its problems of self-replacement, its problem of over-involvement, and so on. He found some evidence of a willingness to share in a group exploration of their own role and problems, and their meaning for Baltimore. Therefore he proposed providing a situation where, under the sponsorship of a university, top leaders can come together to ponder the nature of leadership, the role of management in the life of the city, and the desirability of moving, with the help of the colleges, toward something like an Industrial Center for Liberal Studies.

At this point it is impossible to project plans for the proposal. It must grow out of the group itself, in a situation to which one can only invite participation. To date there has been no attempt to implement the proposal.

CHAPTER V

ADULT DEGREES AND CERTIFICATES

New directions in programming for adult degrees and certificates are difficult to find—perhaps because the dean has less freedom in this area than he has in others. At New York University, Deal Paul McGhee and his staff are making one interesting attempt to develop a certificate curriculum which does more than lift credit courses from the degree program. The program at Boston University has been included as an interesting excursion into both general education and extension.

Although the Brooklyn Project is not brand new and has received considerable publicity, it merits inclusion because of its innovations in planning and executing a degree program for adults. At Northeastern University, the Evening Division is experimenting with a counterpart in business administration.

Another program which is not new is the Basic Program of the University of Chicago; nevertheless, after ten years it still has some claim to being a new direction in such a conservative area of adult education. There are some who criticize its emphasis on "great books," but they have not countered with alternative programs in liberal education for adults—at least none which aspire to such high academic level. The one possible exception is the now defunct Basic Arts Program of Cleveland College. Although it was discontinued, it has been included here because it still deserves serious consideration.

Recently there has been some interest in the development of university courses for adults at the graduate level. In the middle of the twentieth century we have moved a long way from the day when, for the average man, a high school diploma was regarded as evidence of an adequate education; today the trend seems to be toward education beyond the college level, and frequently those who come back to the university are college graduates. Thus, the problem becomes another concern for adult education: why do they come back for postgraduate work? what kind of program should the university provide? does it make any difference that they are adults?

They probably come back for a number of reasons, but two obvious ones are that, first, in an age of mass college education, the Bachelor's degree declines in prestige; and second, in an age of technology, an individual needs more education than formerly. Some suspect that nothing can be done within the framework of graduate schools, but the answer may not be as simple as that. There is an increasing demand for a fifth year or other form of postgraduate work, coming, more often than not, some time after graduation from college. Thus the question is not shall we provide graduate programs, but what kind of programs shall we provide?

If the easy answer is to force everyone into the present mold for graduate education, there is certainly room for some hard thinking regarding the wisdom of it. Graduate programs have been designed more or less exclusively to produce candidates for the Doctor's degree, but this design seems to be a long way from satisfying the needs of ninety per cent of the graduate student body. If their needs are not handled as a distinct program, there is danger that ultimately the objectives of the Doctor's degree will be compromised. The papers which follow present possible ways of dealing with the problem.

Dean Wayne A. R. Leys has proposed a terminal Master's degree as one solution. Hunter College is working on plans for a Master's degree which would prepare teachers of English or social sciences to teach integrated courses in junior high school.

Others are thinking about programs in which the major emphasis is on general or liberal education. At Wesleyan (Connecticut) they have developed a Master of Arts in Liberal Education, designed to offset the specialization which teachers, librarians or school administrators have acquired both in previous education and in professional activities. At Dekalb, Northern Illinois is experimenting with a liberally educative seminar for teachers. The course will carry credit at the graduate level but is not part of a complete Master's program. This is described in Chapter III. For the past eighteen months the Center has been exploring proposals for an avocational Master's and an M.A. in Independent Learning.

THE CERTIFICATE IN GENERAL EDUCATION
(New York University)

The basic assumption of this program is that which underlies most of the work at New York University's Division of General Education; namely, the "cafeteria" principle, under which it is assumed that mature people who come to study at the Division of General Education and who take courses of their own choosing, are well on their way to becoming liberally educated. The certificate program further assumes that if these same persons wish to have a certificate, and will go to the Division for guidance and counsel, they may work for a certificate which is in no way bound to a credit structure imposed from the outside, but is rather tailored to the needs and requirements of each individual. Designed for the mature mind, the program is adaptable to varied aims of individual students, who pursue studies of their own choice, and at a rate of advancement best suited to their own capacities.

The purpose of the program is to help the individual, mature student gain recognition for having successfully negotiated a highly individualized program of general education. But because the program is so individualized, it aims to provide him with an intellectual or artistic experience that helps him focus his varied studies, and give them a more vivid and enduring significance.

There are no "required" courses. Any courses may be included in a student's program. With the assistance and approval of his designated faculty advisers, each student plans a program in accordance with his abilities, aims, previous training, or practical experience. The resulting program of study should be suitably balanced among the student's special interests, his need for further training in communication skills, and a deepened appreciation of the liberal arts and sciences.

Either when the student registers for the Certificate Program or shortly thereafter, he meets his Certificate Program adviser, who helps him to plan his studies in general and to register for specific courses. Later a project adviser is assigned to him. The student is encouraged to seek the assistance of his advisers in connection with any problems pertaining to his studies.

In addition to regularly conducted classroom courses, the program also includes an individual project, in the area of a student's special interest, which he selects with the assistance of a Certificate Program adviser. This project may be a report of the student's special studies in the humanities, a literary or artistic production in the practical arts, or some design or construction in technology. In general this project may serve as a directive for planning the student's individual program.

When his faculty advisers consider the student prepared to begin work on the project described above, an arrangement is made with a faculty member to serve as his special project adviser. As a specialist in the subject matter of the student's project, the project advisor assists the student in developing his project, guides him in his preparatory studies, and gives such special instruction as may be appropriate. This is accomplished through regularly schedules private conferences of varying duration, according to the adviser's discretion. If the project is not completed during two terms of scheduled conferences, the student may continue to consult his project adviser without additional fees until he has completed the project, provided either that he continues his registration in the Certificate Program or that he has satisfactorily completed all other requirements.

The student may, with the approval of the faculty advisers, select any subject for his project, provided that facilities for its study are available to the Division of General Education. The project, as the student's individual task, may be elementary or advanced or complex, depending on the student's prior training and education.

Total Requirements: To qualify for a Certificate in General Education, a student must fulfill the following conditions:

(1) He must complete 48 term hours of course with a grade of Satisfactory or Excellent, including 4 term hours devoted to project conferences.

(2) His completed project must receive the approval of his project adviser and of the administrator of the Certificate Program.

(3) Within one year of his registration in the Certificate Program he must file with the division satisfactory evidence of his graduation from high school or of his passing a High School Equivalency Examination.

Status and References

There have been four graduates of the program thus far (December, 1956). There are eight students registered in certificate project tutorials with project advisors. About 200 students are registered in the program as declared candidates for the certificate. For information, write Associate Dean Russell F. W. Smith, New York University Division of General Education.

BOSTON UNIVERSITY EXTENSION PROGRAM IN GENERAL EDUCATION

The Extension Program in General Education provides 27 credit hours in general education. The courses are those of the first year in the College of General Education, and the program prepares a student for admission into the sophomore class in that College at Boston University. It is offered in part as a solution to the enrollment problem; first, it is given off-campus; second, the curriculum is one in general education.

The College of General Education has developed a two-year curriculum which is general, "because it is concerned with the education of all people," and it provides them with knowledge, skills, understanding, powers of judgement needed for everyday life; ". . . because it draws upon many fields to help students search for meaning in fundamental individual and social problems . . . because it is concerned with development of students as intelligent human beings." At the end of two years the student receives an Associate in Arts degree, or transfers with junior standing to one of the other colleges of Boston University; the program may thus be either terminal or preparatory. In either case, counselling plays an important part in the educational experience; its object is to assist students in planning intelligently for the future.

In the extension program, the first year curriculum will be offered at the Attleboro (Massachusetts) High School. Classes, scheduled for evenings and Saturday mornings, will meet once a week for three hours.

The program consists of five broad areas of study: The Humanities, which deal with communication and appreciation; Human Relations, which introduce students to those social sciences which aid him in understanding both himself and his fellows; Natural Science, which emphasizes great ideas in science; American Civilization, which deals with history and literature; and Political Economy, which treats politics and economics together as they are found in society. As on the main campus, counselling is important, beginning with admissions and continuing throughout the year.

Status and References

The program is being offered in extension this year for the first time. In the first semester, the classes meeting on Monday and Wednesday "carried," but it was necessary to cancel Saturday morning classes because of insufficient enrollment.

For further information see the announcement of the Boston University Extension Program in General Education. The program is not under the jurisdiction of the Evening College, but Harvard-Boston University Extension Courses, 332 Bay State Road, Boston 15, Massachusetts, James F. Baker, Director.

THE EXPERIMENTAL DEGREE PROJECT

(Brooklyn College)

The experimental degree project for adults began in 1953 under a grant from the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults.

The underlying assumption of the project is that experience makes possible the achievement of many of the goals of liberal education as recognized by the A.B. Degree. The Brooklyn College program assumes that the goals of a liberal education can be so defined as to make it possible to grant credit for experience and also to devise individual programs for experienced adults which capitalize on life experiences acquired outside the formal academic environment.

The first report,[1] published in the spring of 1955 after several months of exploration and experimentation, demonstrated the feasibility of the project. The adults enrolled proved themselves richly endowed with many intellectual, emotional and social characteristics considered as the desired goals of a liberal education. This was ascertained through counseling and interview techniques as well as through objective tests.

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[1] How Much Does Experience Count? by Bernard Stern.

Given the fact that these adults have already profited greatly from life experiences, two major problems remained to be solved:

(a) The problem of academic credit, which requires a clearer understanding of the concept of equivalence, particularly when it is to a considerable extent non-formal and non-academic experience for which equivalence is being sought; and

(b) The problem of instruction, which requires the development of courses and methods capable of integrating the rich non-academic experience of adults with the academic principles underlying the A.B. Degree.

The second report[2] describes the manner in which Brooklyn College attempted to solve these problems through the first year of the program. A third report is being prepared which will analyze the financial feasibility of such a program.

While continuing to concern itself with the problems of academic credit, the major emphasis of the College's faculty has been on the development of a curriculum in liberal education for adults, which has formed the basis of the special seminars in Humanities, Social Sciences, and Natural Sciences. The Social Science Seminar and the Natural Science Seminar have already begun. The Humanities Seminar began its first run in January, 1957. The faculty continues to experiment with the tutorials reported in Adults Grow in Brooklyn.

Since its inception the program has admitted two groups. A third is to be admitted by the fall of 1957. One student was graduated in 1956, and three more were scheduled for graduation at the Winter Commencement of 1957.

References

Two reports have been published by CSLEA: How Much Does Experience Count? and Adults Grow in Brooklyn. The committee at Brooklyn College has an unpublished report of its work to date on the planning of a curriculum in Liberal Education for Adults, coordinated by Edgar S. Friedenberg. Further information can be obtained from Bernard Stern,

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[2] Adults Grow in Brooklyn, by Bernard Stern.

Associate Director, School of General Studies, Brooklyn College, or from CSLEA.

THE "WHOLE-MAN CONCEPT"[3]

(Northeastern University)

The School of Business at Northeastern University has embarked on an interesting exploratory adaptation of the Brooklyn College plan.

"Our 'whole-man concept,' as we term it, is an attempt to approach realistically the problem which all of us face in evening college work; namely, the heterogeneity of the student body. In this respect the program is primarily concerned with the highly qualified persons at the top level whose backgrounds of professional experience, in-service training, etc., take them out of the usual 'freshman' classification.

"It also stems from an attempt to define actually what the degree should stand for—is it a mathematical compilation of credits in which the numbers 120 or 130 have magical powers of creating an educated man or does the degree represent the possession on the part of the graduate of knowledge and skills which quantitatively and qualitatively measure up to established standards? If we proceed on the second premise, we must accept the fact that students can learn in places other than the standard classroom, and we should be willing to recognize learning no matter what the source of method of obtaining the same might be.

"This past year we operated a pilot group of ten students. In each case the men had demonstrated ability through achievements on their jobs. They were all superior men using any yardstick of measurement. They comprised men in positions such as Director of Personnel, Production Control Supervisor, Director of Quality Control, Plant Superintendent, etc. The program was not publicized but the ten were recommended by members of the faculty. Each in turn through personal interview was informed regarding the program—what it would offer and what its requirements would be. A lengthy survey of his qualifications gave evidence of the areas in the field of management in which he had already demonstrated considerable ability.

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[3] Reproduction of a letter from Dean Albert Everett of Northeastern to CSLEA, October 19, 1956. Information may be obtained from Dean Everett.

"In essence the plan represents a tutorial basis of instruction in areas limited to those of his demonstrated abilities. Under the tutorial basis the student met with his instructor on a schedule determined by the tutor and for that period of time until the tutor indicated that the student was qualified to take one of the standard examinations for the course. In other words, students must satisfy the standard requirements for the course. At an evaluation meeting at the close of the year it was clearly evidenced that the students actually were required to cover more ground than those normally enrolled. This was possible because of their vocational maturity.

"All of the students were extremely pleased with their experiences and highly recommended that the program be extended. It is our plan to continue it again this year on a semi-restricted basis before making any general announcements."

THE BASIC PROGRAM OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS
(University of Chicago)

The Basic Program of Liberal Education for Adults has been in operation for ten years. Although enrollments have been relatively small, it is a successful venture in high quality education for adults.

According to one of its bulletins, "the aims of the Program are to help men and women to think more clearly, to talk and write better, to share in discussion more easily, to enjoy works of art more fully; and further to know more about themselves, other people, the major fields of learning, and the great intellectual achievements of the West."

Five different classroom activities are planned to give the student as comprehensive a program in liberal education as possible. Classes meet either once a week or twice a week. The once-a-week plan is less comprehensive and does not include the Social Science Tutorial or the Natural Science Tutorial. Descriptions are taken from a recent bulletin describing the Program.

The Seminar—This class is the heart of the Basic Program. Here the participants and instructor gather around a table and discuss the week's outside reading. Seminar readings consist of great novels, plays, poems, and classic works on politics, economics, ethics, history, and psychology. Textbooks and other secondary sources are avoided on the ground that they over-simplify and distort ideas by isolation and summary. An average time of four or five hours a week is required to do the Seminar readings.

The Humanities Tutorial—This class balances the rapid reading for Seminar with close reading in class. The purpose of the class is to see how works of art, music, and poetry, as well as history and philosophy, are constructed. The group analyzes representative works line by line or paragraph by paragraph. This procedure provides invaluable training in methods of reading. In the first year of the Humanities Tutorial the group reads two essays in literary criticism, followed by the close-reading analysis of lyric poems. Little outside preparation is required.

The Social Science Tutorial—The purpose of this class is to apply philosophy to the practical problems of our time. The student writes three papers a year relating a great philosophical work to contemporary problems of ethics, economics, and politics. The factual material necessary for writing the papers is provided. Instruction is given, not by group discussion, but by individual conferences with a teacher. This class does not meet in the first year of the Program, and it is not included in the once-a-week plans of study. It meets only in the second, third, and fourth years of the twice-a-week plan.

The Natural Science Tutorial—Here the group studies the nature of science—what it is, how it goes about solving a problem, and how valid its conclusions are. Short papers by scientists are read in class. The group analyzes the methods of investigation used in solving problems in the various fields of science. No scientific or mathematical background is presupposed; on the other hand, those whose training has been in science will not find this course a duplication of their previous work. The Natural Science Tutorial is not included in the once-a-week programs. Little outside preparation is required.

The Lecture—Once a month, on Friday evenings, a lecture is held to supplement the classroom discussions. Given by distinguished members of the University faculty, the lectures usually discuss texts that are currently being read by first-year students. Basic Program students are admitted to the lectures at a cost of $2.00 for the complete series.

THE BASIC ARTS PROGRAM

(Cleveland College)

At about the same time that the University of Chicago inaugurated the Basic Program, Cleveland College of Western Reserve University commenced an experiment called The Basic Arts Program. Although it is not in operation at present, it merits consideration as a new direction in programming.

According to Dean John Barden and his staff, it is a paradox that there are institutions for the education of the young, who have few occasions to make responsible decisions, and institutions for research for a comparatively limited number of scholars, whose decisions have little immediate influence. Yet for mature, responsible adults who must make crucial individual and social decisions there are only the mass media and miscellaneous culture courses. The contributions education can make to the responsible individual are bestowed upon those who have no present responsibility and denied to those who do. The Basic Arts Program intends to meet this paradox by providing responsible people with the tools for making justifiable choices in all areas where significant choices may be made.

The Basic Arts are three distinguishable but related ways of getting knowledge from human experience. They are the Aristotelean arts by which we extract theoretical knowledge (understanding), practical knowledge (doing), and productive knowledge (making). In terms of fields of learning that have academic recognition, the emphasis in theoretical knowledge is on philosophy and natural sciences; the emphasis in practical knowledge is on history and social science; and the emphasis in productive knowledge is on literature, visual arts, and music.

The specialist armed with a method and confined to a field may be able to explain, do, and make things superlatively in that field, but life is not confined to one field and intelligent choices may involve using all three kinds of knowledge. The Program has six seminar areas for studying the methods needed in reaching responsible decisions. They are natural science, history and social science, writing, visual arts, music, and philosophy.

The perspective of these seminars includes a close-up on the skills involved in understanding and a focus in depth on methods. By reading, listening, demonstration, papers to be written, reports to be made, research to be done, and things to be made—by all these techniques the Program will explore the methods of reaching justifiable decisions in theoretical sciences and philosophy, in social practice, and in activities of work and art. The exploration will not require complete knowledge of the fields in which methods are applicable, but thoroughgoing study of significant examples of work done with the methods in question. Then the Program will seek to show how these methods, as complex, variable combinations of the Basic Arts, may be removed from their tight academic compartments and focused on specific human problems.

The Program does not worry about simulating problems of life—it deals with people who deal with life. They bring to the Seminars problems which are real—a realism which challenges the faculty to turn the academic mind toward a continuous application of the methods of warranted choice to concrete and living issues.

Weekly seminars meet from September to June and each annual unit carries six credits toward a degree of Associate in Philosophy. Degree candidates must complete the first annual seminar of the six fields and four advanced units in fields of their choice. Each seminar closes with written and oral examinations. Non-credit students are admitted but must meet all regular requirements except the examinations.

THE TERMINAL MASTER'S DEGREE

(Wayne A. R. Leys, Roosevelt University)

A very large percentage of students who enroll in graduate school never earn a Master's degree, and of course an even smaller number earn a Ph.D. Some have amibitions but do not make it; others have no serious intention beyond the Master's degree or some graduate credits required for a particular job or a advancement in pay. The attitude of graduate faculties toward this group tends to be negative; that is, faculties think in terms of the Master's degree as a consolation prize or in terms of the student's inability to go all the way.

Dean Leys believes that there is a definite need for a terminal Master's degree with positive goals. Such positive goals "will not be found in the psychology literature on ability differentials. One must be careful to avoid the assumption that the terminal Master is unintelligent." The terminal Master's degree should have professional objectives designed to meet the needs of such people as teachers, social service workers, accountants, government workers, and so forth. Dr. Leys proposes four affirmative goals to meet these objectives.

I–Creation of a basis for technical competence. This does not mean training instead of education. It means providing the individual with sufficient theoretical knowledge so that he can master difficult techniques without constant supervision; it is not on-the-job training, but qualification for on-the-job training.

II–Maintenance of and, if possible, improving the reading habits and habits of inquiry. This is not indistinguishable from an undergraduate goal; many graduate students come from outside the university, where it has been easy to quit studying; and many first-year graduate courses serve to stimulate reading in a non-reading world. Further-

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more, although reading and inquiry are undergraduate goals, the graduate instructor will be able to relate the readings and inquiries to the more permanent motivations of work, family, and community.

III—Development of professional attitudes. In some cases, like law and medicine, these attitudes exist, but it is not the case with many other occupations. The graduate school would do a real service if it could instill professional attitudes in school teachers, social workers, and so forth; this is a case not merely of ethical codes (although they are important) but of an appreciation of the profession's distinctive functions and its relation to other professions.

The terminal Master's degree is not proposed as an alternative to graduate education leading to the doctoral degree. The university is responsible for recruitment and screening of candidates for the doctorate. Dean Leys insists, however, that the terminal Master's degree is also necessary as a legitimate and practical aspiration for nine-tenths of the graduate students in the United States. It should not be awarded as a regretful concession that the recipient did not measure up to a doctorate, but as a degree that can stand on its own two feet.[4]

THE GRADUATE SUMMER SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS
(Wesleyan University—Connecticut)

The Graduate Summer School for Teachers was established at Wesleyan University in 1953 for the purpose of providing teachers and school administrators with the opportunity of extending their general education. No similar opportunity had previously existed. The teacher who wished to go on to a Master's degree had to choose between the M.Ed. and the academic Master's degree in a single subject. Both are admirable degrees of long standing, but many teachers found neither well-suited to their needs. The degree in a single subject involves intensive but narrow research; for most public school teachers broad correlative study is more valuable. The M.Ed. involves many courses in education; many teachers feel that their undergraduate courses in education, plus their experience as teachers, make further study of education less valuable than greater command of subject matter.

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[4] This summary is based on an article by Wayne A. R. Leys which is scheduled for publication in a forthcoming issue of The Harvard Review of Education. Dr. Leys is Dean of the Graduate School, Roosevelt University.

Wesleyan accordingly established the new degree of Master of Arts in Liberal Studies (M.A.L.S.) which gives the candidate an opportunity to work in three or more subjects. In at least one he must take advanced courses, but in the others he may take elementary courses. This makes it possible for teachers to begin the study of new subjects, thereby broadening their general education and making themselves better teachers.

At the most obvious level, they become better teachers by learning new subjects allied to their specialities. At a less obvious level, an important and surprising amount of cross-fertilization occurs when almost any new subject is studied. At the least obvious level, but in some ways the most important, there is abundant evidence that all serious and thoughtful study tends to make a more stimulating, versatile mind and therefore a better teacher.

What of the teacher who has the Master's degree, wishes to continue his formal education, but finds the specialization and research required for the Ph.D. unsuited to his needs? Should not general education be available to him? Wesleyan believes that it should. The Certificate of Advanced Study (C.A.S.) is therefore now made available to those who wish to pursue an integrated program of not less than thirty hours beyond the Master's degree.

Programs leading to the C.A.S. will need even more adjustment to individual needs than those leading to the M.A.L.S. because previous study will vary more. A teacher who has taken the M.Ed. will have less command of subject matter than one who has taken the M.A.L.S. or the degree in a single subject. He must be encouraged to take courses which make sense for him, including elementary courses. The teacher who has gone to the other extreme and taken a research degree in a single subject should usually do no more work in that subject, but devote his attention to others.

Whatever his pattern of undergraduate and graduate training, the candidate for the C.A.S. will usually want a program of broad, coherent exploration of one or more subjects in the Liberal Arts curriculum. Wesleyan makes every effort to provide the most rewarding experience possible.

To be eligible, a candidate for the M.A.L.S. must have a Bachelor's degree and be a teacher, librarian, or school or college administrator. He must take 30 hours of work—15-21 hours in a major field, 3-6 hours in a special area called The Western Tradition, and the balance (at least 9 hours) in electives. The total program must form a coherent pattern in line with the objectives of the program.

There are five fields of study:

I—Art, Music, Theater
II—Anthropology, Education, Psychology
III—Mathematics, Natural Sciences
IV—Economics, Government, History
V—Literature

A candidate for a Certificate of Advanced Study must have a Master's degree and come from the same fields as those in the M.A.L.S. program. The Certificate is awarded after 30 hours of study beyond the Master's. The nature of the program is planned in conference between the candidate and appropriate university faculty.

MASTER OF ARTS—ESPECIALLY FOR ADULTS

(An undeveloped proprosal)

The meaning of the Master's degree in American higher education is not altogether clear. Perhaps a basic question which needs examination is: for what purpose does an adult want a Master's degree? In many cases the answer is fairly obvious: the candidate is in search of professional or technical competence, or of a passport to a better job or higher pay. In his proposal for a terminal Master's, Dean Wayne A. R. Leys insists that it is not enough to give such people a piece of the program designed for doctoral candidates. He has suggested some affirmative goals for these graduate students who are not and should not be candidates for the Ph.D. The purpose of this proposal is to suggest two other possibilities which are especially for adults and which are directed primarily at non-vocational objectives.

I - An Avocational Master's Degree

In an informal discussion with the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, Dean Leys pointed out that there must be fairly specific motivation to activate an individual to undertake graduate study. He believes that a person simply does not go after a Master's degree for the same vague reasons which bring him to the undergraduate college. Graduate work generally is to increase a man's professional status, to improve him on the job.

The assumption behind the Avocational Master's degree is based on the motivation of self-advancement or increased competence in activities outside the job. It could be designed for those active in community affairs, ranging all the way from power figures to the leaders of the League of Women Voters; it could be designed to increase the competence of lay leaders in education; it could be church-related; and so on.

II - A Master's Degree in Independent Learning

In effect this would be a graduate-level program in liberal or general education. The major motivation might be based on one of two factors: (1) in an age of specialization in our educational programs and in our economic lives, much serious thought is being given to the necessity for providing an opportunity for some liberal education—if college education and economic activity are specialized, perhaps the place for "liberation" is in adult education; (2) from the point of view of the individual, there is a segment, however small, in the population that is intellectually curious, that wonders, that wants to understand more of what it knows—although there are limits to the role of the university in "lifelong learning," there might be some justification to a Master's degree which helped offset specialization, stimulated inquiry, and provided tools for understanding and for further independent growth.

Today business and industry are supporting a number of experiments in liberal or general education. This is being done for a number of reasons, although the most important one is to broaden specialists in order to prepare them for the executive function. Perhaps, instead of a number of individual projects, the answer might be a Master's degree emphasizing liberal or general education. This might satisfy both motivational factors considered above.

There has been no attempt to develop a curriculum for either of these adult degrees; however, two assumptions have been made: (1) the program must be more than a selection from the catalog of conventional graduate offerings; (2) since the programs are for adults they should be developed in such a way as to make experience count and to take into consideration other factors which make adults different from younger students.

Reference

This is based largely on a notion developed by John B. Schwertman; it was originally described as an M.A. in General Education. While it has not been developed, the Center is interested in further exploration.

CHAPTER VI

NEW CHALLENGES

In an era of rapid change such as characterizes the present day, new demands tend to be made upon a people's social institutions. New inventions and discoveries have a way of creating new challenges to be met by the educational institutions. Certain of these challenges are being faced by institutions of higher learning in general, and by their divisions of adult education in particular.

Four of them have been singled out for inclusion in this volume because they represent areas of immediate concern to evening colleges and extension divisions, and because they excite the imagination of a number of program planners. We refer to them as "challenges" because they are in the earliest stages of development, and most of the programs concerning them are pioneering.

The first of these centers around the mass media, particularly TV. Still in its infancy, education by television offers many opportunities, not the least of which is its possible solution to the teacher shortages arising from increasing college populations. In addition, here is a versatile new medium whose potentials have never really been tapped. The major question is how TV can most creatively meet the challenges of present day education.

Second is the area of education for the aging. Stemming as it does from the longer life expectancy and better health of the over-65 population, education of the aging develops around two kinds of programs: those which prepare adults for retirement and later years; and those which help to make retirement years productive, fruitful, and pleasurable.

The third and very recent challenge is the alumni program. With a population which will contain an ever increasing percentage of college graduates, the colleges and universities must think of the kinds of educational needs they can meet in post-graduation programs. If continuing education is an accepted concept, then what can alumni groups do for the development of programs for college graduates?

Fourth is the challenge of residential education. In recent years it has been increasingly evident that the education of adults can be aided if they have the time and opportunity to study in a residential setting outside their homes. The potentialities of this kind of education become more apparent when one contemplates the shorter work week and longer periods of leisure which are anticipated for the future. This means, of course, that more people will be able to take advantage of the creative, constructive leisure inherent in the residential idea.

There are interesting developments in all four areas. Examples in this section are intended to be illustrative of the types of direction currently being taken, but they are by no means an exhaustive catalogue of available programs.

THE MASS MEDIA

Radio and TV have always been naturals for certain conventional forms of education, particularly those which lend themselves to lectures or panel discussions in which the listener or viewer is little more than a passive participant. In recent years, however, educators have begun to pay considerable attention to the possibilities of making radical departures from the conventional, particularly in the use of TV. That the results are yet but meager is no reflection on the energy and effort which have been put into the search.

Many problems are being explored: TV departments are trying to find answers to questions related to format, content, credit responsibilities, integration of credit and non-credit programs, joint sponsorship by more than one institution and involvement of varied clientele within the framework of the same program.

At the university of Washington in Seattle Richard Hart is concerned with ways of making TV learning more active for the student. At Washington University, St. Louis, Eugene Johnson has been combining open circuit with closed circuit programs and credit with non-credit; a credit program in mathematics has been conducted by his university under the joint sponsorship of University College, the high schools, other colleges, and industrial groups. The mathematics department reports that freshmen students have done 8 to 10% better than in ordinary classrooms because of the way "help-sessions" have been conducted. This program combines not only different kinds of students but also open and closed circuit techniques.

At NYU there has been experimentation with live, closed circuit TV in freshman English composition and survey of English literature courses. Kansas City reports some success with a Shakespeare program live over commercial TV.

The results of these and other efforts are suggestive of the possible solutions which mass media may offer for some of today's educational programs, and they point the way to innovation.

Hence, in our effort to provide examples of new directions in the use of mass media, we cast about for different kinds of suggestive programs, and discovered that they can be conveniently divided into certain categories: (1) credit and/or non-credit courses, sent out over TV on a catch-as-catch-can basis (many schools do this); (2) the use of the mass media with simultaneous classes or groups meeting during the broadcast—examples are the closed circuit Stephens College program and the Houston program; (3) the combination of several media, as at San Bernadino, where they used radio, TV, the newspapers and other experiences in the development of a rich program; (4) the approach of "looking in" and "followup" with special community groups as seen in the Washington University TV workshop on Science and Human Responsibility; and (5) the full-blown credit experiment of the Chicago Junior Colleges.

CLOSED CIRCUIT TV, A CONTINUING EXPERIMENT
(Stephens College)

Behind the Stephens program is the assumption that there is a need for better use of the limited special talents available to a school, and that such a need can be satisfied by intelligent use of TV. TV, properly used, makes it possible to work with large segments of the student body, exposing them to a "master teacher" in a way not possible through large lecture halls or occasional soirees with the "great man."

Its objective is to make it possible, economical, and feasible, to bring to a campus the most outstanding and best qualified teachers and leaders, and to expose large numbers of students and faculty to their continued influence, in a program worked out jointly by the master teachers and the resident faculty.

The program consists of (1) the master teacher, who is in residence for a full semester; (2) lectures over closed circuit TV by the master teacher twice a week, for twenty minutes; (3) students who watch and listen to lectures in assigned groups, with a discussion leader, a member of the faculty; (4) in each classroom, independent discussion which follows immediately after the lectures; (5) continuing discussions between faculty and master teacher; (6) opportunity for students to meet with the master teacher in small groups or in individual conferences.

Status and Reference

The first master teacher was Reuel Denney, followed by Huston Smith and T. V. Smith. Faculty and students report enthusiastically on the project. Plans to continue are on the books. Information can be obtained from Dean James G. Rice of Stephens College.

THE CREDIT PROGRAM USING TV AT THE UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON

The Houston credit program has at least three interesting features. First, no department is forced to teach over TV—and within each department no individual instructor can be required to do so. Second, each department is free to operate its television courses as it sees fit. In elementary biology students are required to come to the University once a week for lab, and the professor makes it a point to have some personal contact with each of them. In other disciplines there are required discussion meetings which bring students to the campus. One literature course requires watching TV sessions in addition to the conventional class meetings. At least so far, no classes have been given which eliminate face to face meetings entirely, although obviously this might happen through the freedom allowed the individual, and in some advance courses it might be logical. Third, students as well as teachers are given the choice of TV or conventional classroom. There has been some suspicion of, or hostility toward, television, but on the whole it has become increasingly popular.

Part of the justification for televised education is in terms of learning. Its advocates point to fewer distractions during the lecture for the home viewer compared with the classroom situation; and they claim that the television teacher must be more carefully prepared. Since face to face learning is not altogether eliminated one objection to telecast education is minimized. Another advantage claimed for television is financial—for example, a saving in plant needed to house 700 students in biology, a saving which applied particularly to the introductory courses. At Houston there is during the first year a large dropout because of failure; this, of course affects the total size of the student body. Ultimately such claims help justify financing for the university's operation of a television station.

THE SAN BERNADINO PROGRAM

One of the experiments in the "Test City" project of the Fund for Adult Education involved group discussion based on a series of records which presented academic subject matter in dramatic form. For example, one of the series was Ways of Mankind; in this case the subject matter was a number of anthropological concepts. The plan was to have these records broadcast over the radio to listening groups meeting at the homes of several of the participants. After the broadcast, the groups were to discuss the subject presented. At San Bernadino both the press and the radio were enlisted in the project, and it stirred up considerable interest.

Under the direction of Mr. Eugene Johnson, the technique was expanded beyond these general academic presentations and used as a basis for education and discussion related to local civic issues. Once again the press was involved, and carried advanced articles about the problem and program. Mr. Johnson and his staff prepared dramatic presentations which became the subject matter, or "text," for group discussions meeting in San Bernadino living rooms. Finally, participation was strengthened and the educational experience broadened by a system providing for communication between the groups and experts, who were located at the radio station. The parlor sessions were encouraged to raise issues or ask questions. After an interval provided for discussion the queries could be telephoned to the radio station for a direct answer from the experts who were standing by.

TELEVISION WORKSHOP ON SCIENCE AND HUMAN RESPONSIBILITY

(Washington University, St. Louis)

This program demonstrates the possibilities of multiple use of TV activities. Using as a starting point, a televised conference of great import to society, the university in conjunction with the local adult education council developed a series of interrelated activities which involved many segments of the community in an important educational project. There were three important phases:

(1) Invitation to Watch—The Washington University program began with an invitation to "attend . . . via television . . . A CONFERENCE ON SCIENCE AND HUMAN RESPONSIBILITY." The Conference was to be the first of a series. Part One was presented in September, 1956; Parts Two and Three in November, 1956.

(2) Getting Materials to Read—The St. Louis public was invited to watch these discussions as they occurred (evening telecasts at 8:30), and was informed that published materials relating to the conference would be available from time to time. These discussions were filmed and integrated into a program series which will be shown at a later date in St. Louis and elsewhere.

(3) Followup with relevant groups by University College and the Adult Education Council—Using materials developed out of the TV program, a conference was held for club presidents, program chairmen, teachers, church leaders, PTA leaders, and others with programming responsibilities. Its purpose was to discuss the use to which these materials could be put as part of the educational activities of these various segments of the community.

Status and Reference

The hope is that the experiment will demonstrate a way in which important educational events can be brought into focus not only for their immediate impact upon a local community, but also for the continuing education of both the local community and others. At the time of this writing there is no indication, elsewhere in the country, of any use of the kinescopes, and it is still too early to judge the effect of the program on the educational activity of St. Louis. Information can be obtained from Eugene Johnson, Assistant Dean, University College, and Director of TV activities. Washington University, St. Louis.

REGULAR COLLEGE PROGRAM ON TV
(Chicago City Junior Colleges)

This is a large-scale experiment in mass education, providing the full-blown junior college program for credit and the bona fide junior college diploma. These courses are considered an extension of the educational services already offered by the Chicago Junior Colleges. In their own words,

> "By making superior teaching available to more students right in their own homes, television will provide the opportunity of college education to many who would otherwise miss it."

The first year, four courses were offered over an educational TV channel: Social Science, English, Biology, and Political Science. They are all introductory courses, from the list of twenty courses required for the junior college diploma.

The television course follows the general pattern and schedule of its classroom counterpart. Each of the four courses is given at its specified time in 45 half-hour daytime sessions on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays throughout the semester. Kinescope film reproductions of the live daytime programs are shown one week later to evening viewers. Regular school holidays are observed.

In general, the procedure followed is very much like that of any credit course on TV. The student turns in all required written work to the junior college branch in which he is enrolled and reports there for examinations and any other meetings the course may require. Regularly enrolled students may use any of the college's student services at the branch at which they are enrolled. These services include individual counseling, vocational guidance, job placement, library services and participation in other school functions.

One of the most distinguishing concepts underlying the production of the TV class is the agreement that each session is to be treated as a "show," and teachers are selected for their ability to project the lessons to a TV audience. As Time reports (November 5, 1956):

> "Out of more than 30 faculty volunteers, the colleges and TV-men picked twelve who seemed both able and telegenic enough to go

> over. Then after a series of auditions, they chose each show's 'star'. But behind the four stars is a staff of about 60 colleagues who help prepare lectures, grade papers, and counsel students."

Thus it is that a large segment of the school faculty gets involved in the production and preparation of the courses.

Since it is an experiment, the project also involves investigating the relative effectiveness of three methods of instruction: (1) television instruction for students observing the telecasts in their own homes without direct contact with teachers; (2) television instruction for students observing the telecasts within the branches of the college with supplementary instruction by teachers; and (3) usual class instruction. The students subjected to the first method are members of the "experimental groups." The students instructed by the second method are members of the "TV control" groups or classes. The students receiving the usual method of instruction are members of "conventional control" groups or classes. These groups are being subjected to a variety of tests.

Status and References

The first classes began in the fall term, 1956. Information is available through Clifford G. Erickson, Assistant Dean, in charge of TV, Chicago City Junior Colleges.

AGING

It is somewhat incongruous to talk about new directions in programming for aging because there are no old ones. The field of gerontology is in its infancy; universities are still uncertain of their responsibilities and, in some cases, reluctant to enter the field. Thus, much of the material which follows is concerned with the general problem of education and aging. The basis for most of these notes is A Charter for the Aging, a report of the New York State conference convened by Governor Harriman in 1955.

CHARTER FOR THE AGING

In October, 1955, Governor Averill Harriman convened a New York State Conference on the Problems of the Aging. The conference divided into a number of committees to deal with various facets of the total question. The list of the conference structure is an interesting indication of its complexity. There were committees on Community Organization; Education and Recreation; Group Care of the Aged; Health, Medical Care and Rehabilitation; Housing; Maintenance of Income and Prevention of Indigency; Mental Health; Retirement Policy; Role of Religion; and University Research, Teaching, and Training.

Education for the Aged and the Aging

Professor Raymond Kuhlen, Syracuse University, served as consultant to the Committee on Education and Recreation. His report is relevant to the discussion of New Developments in Programming.[1] Dr. Kuhlen points out that, although gerontology is in its infancy, there are certain generalizations about the nature of aging which must be considered in devising appropriate programs, materials and methods for work with the aged. He presents the six generalizations which follow.

1. "Aging is a gradual process beginning relatively early in life and is continuous in the sense that basic patterns of personality and adjustment once established tend to persist over long periods of years." (The major point Kuhlen develops here concerns the development of long range adult education programs which in a sense would be preparatory for later maturity.)

2. "Changes in capacities, while usually not a crucial limiting factor in adult education programs, must be taken into account in determining method, content, facilities, scheduling."

3. "Many of the behavioral characteristics and problems of aging are rather directly attributable to biases toward aging existing in society at large."

4. "The course of aging is characterized by highly significant changes in motivation and personality and in the nature of frustrations and problems (i.e., specific needs) to be found at various age points." (In this connection Kuhlen refers first to the concept of developmental tasks which differ at various age levels; second, he refers to the notion that motivations may be either positive or negative forces—positive

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[1] See Charter for the Aging, pp. 78-95.

forces of expansion tend to predominate at younger ages and negative forces of defense against losses tend to be more common with older persons.)

5. "The striking differences that exist among individuals in patterns of aging and among individuals at any age must be taken into account in effective adult education programs."

6. "The human organism as a 'whole,' and individual's sense of well-being and total effectiveness [is] the product of interaction of various facets of his makeup and life—his health, his economic security, his personality, etc."

Implications

For Dr. Kuhlen these generalizations suggested a number of implications for universities.

(1) Need for more extensive leadership training—and especially in-service training for those already working in the field.

(2) Need for greater exploitation of mass media for the education of the aged.

(3) Need for more extensive research into matters pertaining to the psychology and education of the aged.

(4) Need for greater flexibility in the structure of adult education programs and activities. For example, he suggested shorter programs in place of the conventional semester or quarter system—perhaps only two or three meetings or a one-day institute. He also suggested more attention should be given to the physical facilities.

(5) Need for counseling services in the adult education context. He noted that grants or funds were often made available for group activities and suggested that they should be sought for individual programs such as counseling.

(6) Need for the establishment of state and local councils or commissions on the aged.

Report of the Committee on University Research and Training

The report provides a summary of the problems faced by the total university, particularly in reference to New York State. In one sense it is all relevant to the adult education dean. The notes which follow, however, were selected because they were immediately pertinent to evening college programming.

Adjustment in Middle and Later Life is the name of a course which has been offered at Cornell since 1952. One of the assumptions is that the young and those in early middle age can profit most from the findings of gerontology (p. 450).

Are the regular offerings of the adult education division appropriate for older persons? On the basis of the report on New York State institutions of higher education, it appears that many colleges and universities are satisfied that they are. In fact, Dr. Hans Simons (New School) reported to the committee that "we disapprove as a matter of policy isolating older people." He went on to say that the mixture of age groups was one of the greatest assets of the New School program (p. 466).

Direct services which the modern university can render the senior citizen are:

(1) Help fill lonely hours with absorbing study.

(2) Help him find friends and social relations.

(3) Help him expand vistas and develop a philsophy to sustain himself in later years.

(4) Help him prepare for retirement through courses geared to that special problem.

(5) Help him find a useful role with status and ego support by capitalizing on his abilities in the interests of the university or the community.

(6) Help him sharpen rusted skills or develop new ones so that he can obtain work.

(7) Restore confidence in himself and keep him participating.

(8) Help him develop hobbies to give later years new interests. (p. 493).

PREPARATION FOR LATER MATURITY

(St. Louis University)

Introductory Note

At St. Louis University there are a number of courses in this area which approach the subject from different points of view. They are presented here as a group rather than separately.

Rationale

According to Mr. Anthony Salamone, Director of Adult Education, "more and more of our older citizens are becoming interested in programs designed especially to help them to overcome problems which they know are inevitable if they live long enough. Most of them are interested, and understandably so, in the problem of security, first. Any courses set up so that they will get a better understanding of how to help themselves to attain even partial security will be of interest to them."

Programs

Classes for senior citizens include Preparation for Retirement (for personnel men) and Preparation for Retirement (for persons 35 to 60 years of age). Thus, through these two courses the University serves persons who are responsible for industrial or business retirement programs and, in the second case, serves adults directly. In a lecture course for personnel men, the subjects considered are problems of the aged, physical health, mental hygiene, financial preparation for retirement, education for continuing usefulness—alternatives to retirement and how to retrain—and aging employees and their problems. In the course for employees, topics are Staying Young Beyond Your Years, Problems of Aging, Aging Successfully, Planning Finances and Making Other Plans for Retirement.

Similarly, there are a pair of courses in the area of living in the later years. In one, Programming for Older People, the emphasis is in community leaders or workers who are responsible for setting up programs. The other, Successful Living in Later Years, has been especially popular. It considers such topics as developing hobbies, part-time job opportunities after 60, ideas for a service or business, and lectures and discussions on health, mental hygiene, psychological changes, finances. The program also includes opportunities for social activities.

OTHER DEVELOPMENTS IN PROGRAMMING FOR THE AGING

Turning from the general to the specific, numerous programs might be mentioned. Only a few examples can be included; they have been selected as illustrative of developments in the field.

The Cold Springs Project, one of the better known programs for the aging, is designed to assist college graduates over sixty years of age to prepare themselves for the future. In particular the aim of the project is to bring out the special and unique capacity of each individual; to help revive old interests and skills; and to encourage exploration of new fields.

Individuals or married couples, one of whom must be a college graduate, undertake a year of resident study which includes (1) individual and group counseling; (2) use of medical, nutritional, psychiatric, and psychological consultants; (3) a flexible curriculum which helps develop creative activities and helps prepare participants for leadership in programs for older persons in their own communities.

One objection to the Cold Springs Project is that it is expensive in time and money—six or nine months at $300 or $250 per month. Dr. Raymond Kuhlen, in his address before the Committee on Education and Recreation, asked whether these principles might not be adapted to other, less elaborate situations. For example, he suggested the development of a summer institute on the university campus, or the creation of a local program which used nearby residential centers available at many universities.

At the Racine Center, University of Wisconsin, plans are being made for an experimental program on Planning for Retirement; it will be given in cooperation with a local industry. The University Extension has been hesitant about entering the field because of the potential avalanche of requests which could not be handled quantitatively or qualitatively. This program is designed to provide a learning situation for representatives of industry, community, and university-that is, over and above the content which is for those planning for retirement.

At St. Louis University, Mr. Anthony Salamone is inclined to favor special classes for the older students. He agrees that many older people will attend classes set up under the regular adult education program, but he thinks they are increasingly interested in courses designed to help them. These may be courses related to their physical, economic, or psychological security; or they may be intellectual. In this latter connection the University has a successful World Politics Discussion Group especially for older persons.

St. Louis University offers a number of courses in this area; they fall into three general categories. First, Programming for Older People places the emphasis on community workers or leaders who are responsible for setting up programs for older people. Second. Successful Living in Later Years is designed to prepare people for old age. Finally, Techniques of Job Hunting attempts to help salvage older men and women who have reached a point of low morale regarding job opportunities.

At Purdue University the Division of Adult Education held a two-day institute, called A Commission on Aging Goes to School (1955). Indiana had lagged behind some states in its program for the aging. Spearheaded by voluntary organizations, the state legislature created a commission on aging. One of the early meetings of the new commission was this "self-education" workshop. Four national experts were imported to work with the group; their formal talks were informative and gave practical advice. Committees were organized and recommendations for study and action were made to the commission.

ALUMNI

The development of programs for alumni is today in its infancy. Not that alumni do not take part in a considerable number of educational programs devised by their colleges, but rather that there are few programs of any sustained quality which are designed specifically for alumni groups, particularly in the liberal arts or avocational area. There are some notable exceptions to the rule, however, in the field of professional courses, such as the programs at Ohio State (professional assemblies) for doctors, lawyers, dentists, etc., and the Harvard Graduate School of Business Alumni Programs.

In March of 1956 a review of the literature of alumni associations was made at the National Office of the American Alumni Council. The results of this review indicate the nature of current practice in programming for alumni, as reported by Robert Ahrens in the working papers of The Shoreham Conference on Continuing Alumni Education in Washington, D.C., April 23, 1956.

> "Techniques used include: forums, lectures, seminars, debates, speech, conferences, panel, group discussion, drama, musical presentation, films, bibliography, and reading materials.
>
> "Occasions used include: summer institutes, encampments, home-coming, reunion, alumni colleges and universities, weekend residential situations, radio and TV shoes, weekly and monthly programs, neighborhood meetings, commencements, short course, and program series.
>
> "The programs are presented both on and off campus by single institutions, by inter-university groups, through cooperation with extension divisions, home study programs, traveling vans.
>
> "Themes are used on many occasions, such as: The Trained Mind in a Democratic Society; Educated Man and Society; The World You Live In; Knowledge and Freedom, etc.
>
> "In subject matter these alumni programs deal with (1) the liberal arts and sciences, (2) professional and vocational training, (3) citizenship, and (4) life adjustment. The first three areas are better covered than the fourth, life adjustment, which seems to be met on a serious level when dealt with, and nowhere was anything of 'basket-weaving' content indicated."

According to this report, three non-professional programs seemed to be outstandingly successful: the Barnard College Forum (an inter-university affair, primarily a lecture series which serves the alumni of several schools); Southwestern University's at Memphis; and Roosevelt University's at Chicago. The latter two are notable in that their programs are tied in with other total community efforts in adult education, and are geared primarily to the metropolitan area of the community in which the college is located. Both of these are urban schools, as are most AUEC institutions.[2]

Still another kind of program, not reported in the Ahrens working papers, is the humanities course for alumnae developed by Stephens College. This differs from the others in that it is a package deal, developed by the College's Department of Humanities, with discussion guides, leader's manual, and rental materials as well as purchased materials handled through the college.

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[2] For information on the Southwestern program, Laurence F. Kinney, Director of Academic Relations, Memphis Adult Education Center; and on the Roosevelt program, Robert Ahrens, Adult Education Council of Chicago.

Essentially it is a group discussion course in art, literature, and music for adults. Miss Marjorie Carpenter of the Stephens Humanities Department has been in charge of its development, and has personally traveled the country getting groups started and doing some pilot training of discussion leaders. Stephens reports great success with alumnae and their spouses, and several of the alumnae are giving the course for others. Miss Carpenter or Dean James Rice are sources of information at Stephens College, Columbia Missouri.

RESIDENTIAL PROGRAMS

Among the many different approaches to the education of adults in America the residential idea is becoming increasingly significant. Its development can be observed in a wide variety of educational and quasi-educational activities at many different levels. At the minimal level there is the American convention or conference. At the maximal level is the residential adult school. Between these extremes are found many programs whose goals, broadly speaking, are educational and whose activities occur in residence. Among the latter are weekend institutions, conferences for business men, labor education programs, study camps, religious retreats, summer colonies, art centers, and theatre groups. They vary in length from weekends (as at the Junto) to the one-year elite residential experience at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, to the indefinite stay at Pendle Hill or Cold Springs (see Appendix, The Residential School in American Adult Education, by Royce S. Pitkin).

Many of these programs involve universities and colleges. In some cases involvement of the university is limited merely to allowing some group to use the facilities of the institution. In such cases the school or residential site is rented for a period of time for the use of special interest groups who bring their own constituents for training or education, devised or executed by the groups themselves. Gould House of New York University is often used in this manner. In addition there are a large number of schools, colleges, and universities, not primarily in the field of adult education, which prepare special residential programs for specific groups either at the school during the off-season, or at school-owned and operated residential sites and continuing education centers. Other institutions prepare residential programs of liberal or general education for the public at large. Examples are the University of Chicago's one-week sessions at the Clearing and the Junto Weekends at Harcum Junior College. Still others cooperate with organizations in the development of programs and see to it that the university is intimately involved. The Syracuse Conference Centers are a case in point.

Of special interest to program planners—in terms of new directions—is the relationship between a particular residential program and the total activities of the university. One example shows how the residential program can be looked upon as an integral part of a total course or program, as indicated in what the late John Schwertman referred to as the "Bar-Bell" principle. In this format residential weekends preceeding and succeeding a regular evening program could be of inestimable value in preparing for a course of study on the one hand, and in evaluating it, on the other. Sometimes an occasional residential weekend is called for in the middle. This principle has been applied in the experimental program for journalists (reported under Business, Technical and Professional and the Institute on Human Issues Today (reported under Liberal Arts).

Another approach is to look upon the residential experience as a supplement to a continuing program in the evening college or extension division. Such are the occasional weekends at College Camp of the Basic Program of the University of Chicago.

Still another is to commit a residential experience to some special discrete problem, not particularly related to any other course in the university, but a program for a special group or the public at large, which centers around some theme or some special kind of activity. In this classification are conferences on human relations, Farmers Union Summer Institutes, summer colonies, theatre groups, art festivals, training programs such as the Nebraska School for Living referred to in the section on Community or the many conferences of the Highlander Folk School in Monteagle, Tennessee.

Without attempting to provide examples of every kind of residential program, we are including in this section a discussion of four different organizing principles for residential programs: the Bar-Bell; the continuing weekend porgram (the Junto); the festival concept (Goddard); the conference center idea (Syracuse). We are eliminating a model of the Bar-Bell, however, because we refer the reader to the Memphis discussion (under community) and the journalist and labor institutes mentioned above. Also not discussed here are such programs as the Vassar Institute (see Liberal Arts), the Bell programs and the Harvard Advanced Management program, where much is made of the residential aspects (see Business, Professional and Technical).

Reference

Royce S. Pitkin: The Residential Adult School in American Adult Education, Notes and Essays #14, CSLEA.

THE JUNTO: WEEKEND RESIDENTIAL SCHOOL FOR ADULTS

(Harcum Junior College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania)

The idea of the weekend residential school is to provide a relaxed atmosphere away from usual pursuits, yet within easy distance from home, where learning can take place. It is patterned after the more than 20 such schools which have grown up in England since the war.

Residence gives time for leisurely discussion, in a stroll around the campus or by the fireplace. Living together produces a relaxation of barriers which makes learning easier and more enjoyable. Environment helps, too, by providing an atmosphere conducive to thought and expression. The small size of the group allows each person to participate, to learn as much from other group members as from teachers and guest lecturers.

The School is designed to afford an opportunity for persons with a common interest to join together over a weekend to explore that interest under ideal conditions for study, contemplation and discussion. A weekend residential school allows the group to work free from distractions, to enjoy the fellowship of kindred spirits, to make new and lasting friends, and to acquire a deeper insight and understanding of the topic under discussion.

Learning of another kind—learning how to live with other people—is also gained in the free periods during the weekends of residence. Social activities and entertainment may spring extemporaneously from some members of the weekend group. The School realizes that "all work and no play" is dull.

The program is so planned as to attract different groups of adults each weekend. The discussions are led by noted authorities. An example is given of the program for Winter-Spring, 1955: Comparative Religions, Workshop in Arts, Developing Executive Ability, Quaint Corners of the World, Writers' Workshop, Understanding and Appreciating Music, Backgrounds of Current Events, Personality Development, Golf Practice and Technique, Tennis Practice and Technique, Nature and Bird Study, Understanding Psychoanalysis, and Golf Practice and Technique (repeat).

Status and References

The first series of courses was offered in 1953, and has continued. Although any interested adult is eligible, each course is limited to thirty students in order to get the maximum benefit of small group interaction. The price is $18.00 per weekend, beginning Friday evenings, including room, board, tuition, and gratuities.

For information, write Philip Klein or Henry Klein, Junto Schools, Inc., 12th and Walnut Streets, Philadelphia 7, Pennsylvania.

THE GODDARD COLLEGE MUSIC AND ART CENTER

The Goddard Music and Art Center grew as the result of a need. Once Vermont's Upper Winooski Valley was very much alive musically, but in more recent years it had lost its musical vitality. The Upper Winooski Development Association—a voluntary group dedicated to the bettering of community life in a region—felt something should be done. They formed a Music Committee. From its work came the Upper Winooski Music Community, of which the Goddard Music and Art Center is a part.

The Music and Art Center at Goddard is a place where people who like to play ensemble music or draw and paint can come for all or part of the summer. Here they find others of like interests, and a small resident staff (not teachers, but friends and "workers with"). Concerts are given from time to time by various members of the group, and art work is exhibited. Beyond this simple structure, however, the program is an informal and free one: room and time to work and play, in some of the most beautiful country to be found anywhere.

During the months of July and August, the musical work of the Center has two principal objectives: one, to give amateur musicians the opportunity to play all forms of chamber music with one another; the other, to give residents of the area an opportunity to hear fine music performed close to home.

Students present concerts and exhibit their own paintings. But in addition to "performances," students enjoy ensembles without an audience or painting just for their own pleasure. While there are no restrictions about status, the student body is adult and primarily amateur.

References

For information, Royce S. Pitkin, President, Goddard College.

THE ADIRONDACK CENTERS OF SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

Syracuse University operates three centers in the Adirondacks, under the auspices of University College. The report presented below was prepared for CSLEA by Alan B. Knox, Manager, the Adirondack Centers of Syracuse University. For information, contact Mr. Knox.

The Nature of the Adirondack Conference Centers

Program

1. In most instances the educational program for conferences held in the Adirondack Conference Centers is developed cooperatively by representatives of Syracuse University and of the participating group. In the remaining instances the entire program development and selection of faculty is accomplished by Syracuse University.

2. All facets of each conference are provided for at the conference center. These facets include the educational program, eating, sleeping, recreation and informal discussions during free time.

3. The educational programs in the Conference Centers represent great variety in terms of

   a) Duration—The Conferences range in duration from 2 days to 6 weeks.

b) Content—The content of the Conferences range from basic communications skills, to highly specialized technical material, to broad issues from the liberal arts.

c) Clientele—The participants in the Conferences range in age from 15 to 70 and in socio-economic level from high school students to college presidents.

4. The participants in conference center programs attend as

a) Members of an organization which employs them or to which they belong.

b) Members of a professional association or similar group.

c) Individuals whose prime contact with each other is the conference.

5. The programming in the centers represents a balance between programs which are vocational in intent and those which are liberalizing.

6. The programming in each of the centers represents a balance between the stability provided by continuing programs and the flexibility provided by new and experimental programs.

7. Most of the programs in the centers operate during a six-month season extending from May to October, inclusive.

8. The centers are being used extensively by faculty and student groups from within the University, although this represents but a small portion of the total programming season.

Staff

1. The Adirondack Conference Centers are administered by a Manager who has both Program and Management responsibility.

2. Members of the faculty and administration of Syracuse University make a significant educational contribution to all conference programs.

3. Syracuse University provides a vast resource of educational competence, in its 16 schools and colleges, from which to draw in the development of educational programs.

4. Each conference has a program chairman, who has direct responsibility for the educational program and who works with the Manager in the development of the conference.

5. Each center has a full-time, year-around caretaker, who, under the supervision of the Manager, is responsible for the maintenance of the physical plant.

Facilities

1. The Adirondack Conference Centers provide facilities appropriate for groups of differing size.

a) Pinebrook, located on Upper Saranac Lake, has facilities for groups up to 75.

b) Sagamore, on its private lake located 4 miles south of Raquette Lake, has facilities for groups of up to 100.

c) Minnowbrook, located at Blue Mountain Lake, has facilities for groups up to 30.

2. All of the centers provide a retreat type mountain setting, each completely self-sufficient, to serve the living and learning needs of the participants.

3. In the provision of educational facilities and equipment, the conference centers have direct access to the resources of University College and Syracuse University to augment the basic equipment provided at each of the centers.

4. The entire food operation in the centers is provided by the Syracuse University Food Service, under the supervision of the Manager of the Centers.

Approach

The approach in building an educational program for one of the centers follows the general pattern indicated below:

1. Identification and definition of the educational need of the members of the group to be served. This, in most instances, is a cooperative process involving representatives of the group, members of the faculty of Syracuse University, and the Manager of the centers.

2. Determination of the nature and content of the educational program which best meet the educational need.

3. Tentative selection of a faculty to implement the proposed educational program. This faculty may be drawn from Syracuse University, other educational institutions, the sponsoring organization and fields

related to the purpose of the conference.

4. Acceptance or rejection of the program by the Manager, based on the criterion of whether Syracuse University can make a significant contribution to the proposed educational program.

5. Development of a detailed educational plan by the selected faculty and representatives of the group, if the program has been accepted as being within the province of the University.

6. Presentation of the proposal for acceptance by the representatives of the group to be served.

7. Acceptance of the proposal either directly or after some revision, by the representatives of the group.

8. Execution of the necessary field work, and preparation, so that the contribution of the faculty to the achievement of the educational objectives will be appropriately related to the experiencial background of the participants.

9. Selection of the equipment and materials necessary to support the educational program.

10. Operation of the educational program, and its evaluation.

Why Students Drop Out

A Study of Evening College Student Motivations

By

JAMES T. CAREY

A Report from

CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF
LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS
1953

THE CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS was established as the result of a grant from the Fund for Adult Education to work with the universities providing liberal education for adults. The official purpose of the Center is to "provide aid and leadership to the forces that can develop the evening college and extension movement into a more effective instrument for the liberal education of adults." Communications may be addressed to the Director, 940 East Fifty-eighth Street, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Publications of the Center are listed on the back covers, with information as to how they may be obtained.

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XXI. PAIRED PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS WHO MISS SCHOOL AND WHO DON'T MISS SCHOOL NOTING DIFFERENCES OF FIVE PER CENT AND OVER 34

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In October 1952 the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults was approached by the Chicago area deans and directors[1] with a request that a survey be done on their students who had dropped out. The problem that prompted this study was that a number of continuing students (those who had been enrolled for over two years) did not enroll again in the fall of 1952 although the overall enrollment did not drop. With an eye to predicting future dropouts and making recommendations designed to keep the evening student satisfied and coming back for more, the study was set up to uncover some of the reasons for this phenomenon.

With the background of the Center's research in this problem, a study was designed that would enable us to suggest some answers to the question of why students drop out. The following is a descriptive study in which the emphasis is placed on an attempt to uncover a relationship between certain characteristics of the student, such as his educational plans, and his attitudes toward several aspects of the college, such as courses, policies, and facilities.

Some of the assumptions that helped formulate the research design were suggested by previous interviewing of evening college administrators, faculty, and students done by the Center staff, which produced the following results:

> Case-study interviews with students, all of whom were registered for one or more courses in liberal subjects, show a variety of basic motivations that must be considered in deciding what kinds of course-offerings will attract students:

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[1] Emory Balduf, Roosevelt College; Jack R. Childress, Northwestern University; Maurice F. X. Donohue, University of Chicago; Edward D. Holst, University of Wisconsin; Thomas C. Hilliard, DePaul University; Daniel Lang, Northwestern University; Wayne Leys, Roosevelt College; Richard Matre, Loyola University; Orville Palmer, Marquette University; George A. Parkinson, University of Wisconsin; and W. T. Powers, O.F.M., DePaul University.

> 1. Job-getting
> 2. Professional advancement
> 3. Cultural yearnings
> 4. Remedial general education
>
> "Job-getting" and "professional advancement"—the desire to complete course-work which the student assumes will make it possible for him to get a job, to get a different kind of job, to get promoted, or to do better work on a job he already holds—apparently are commoner motives of students enrolled in liberal arts courses or programs than is generally realized by administrators. . . .
>
> Vague "cultural yearnings" of the sort that give rise to Monday afternoon women's clubs with "nice little book reviews" motivate some evening college students. . . .
>
> A large majority of the interviewed students who are not vocationally motivated must, however, be distinguished from the cultural yearners. Several administrators pointed to a trend away from an earlier preponderance of "women with little feathers in their hats," suggesting that not everyone has realized the significance of the fact that enrolment figures show an increasing number of men students and a wider age distribution than used to be common. . . . That most of these students are motivated by a desire for remedial general education was suggested by a number of administrators.[2]

The results of this earlier experience were further modified and elaborated after preliminary interviewing into two general notions that actively guided this research:

First: that there is an adult who can be considered vocationally minded who goes to evening classes primarily (1) to get ahead on the job, or (2) in preparation for an occupation or a profession. This adult student may or may not have his degree, may or may not have had any college work. This seems to be a more meaningful way to talk about the adult student in the evening college in contrast to the more traditional, credit, non-credit or departmental breakdown. This group has several distinguishing characteristics: it is largely composed of male credit students who have definite plans to complete the "required" work, are very articulate about their dissatisfaction with the college, are free with suggestions for improvement, and do not miss school when they drop out. When they do they are more likely to miss the feeling of getting ahead than anything else. This limited description was set within the framework of a more general presupposition about which something might be discovered in the research: that in an urban stratified society people who are strongly motivated toward social status advancement will tend to enrol in evening colleges.

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[2] Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, Patterns of Liberal Education in the Evening College, A Study of Nine Institutions (Chicago, 1952), pp. 28-29.

Second: that there is an adult who can be considered "culturally oriented" (using culture in its popular meaning) who goes to evening classes primarily for an increased knowledge and understanding in the liberal arts. This would presumably be the smaller of the two groups (70-30). This group has several distinguishing characteristics also: it has a higher percentage of women than the vocationally minded group and they are less articulate in their criticism of the college because of their vague formulation of educational plans. They are also more likely to be concerned about socialization with other students. This leads into several general notions which are connected: In an urban stratified society people who are not strongly identified with the local community and the public institutions of that community will enrol in evening courses. And in a society of secondary contacts people will enrol in evening colleges as one way to escape social isolation or to increase social contacts.

PROCEDURES

We requested a list of 100 names from each of the eight institutions involved,[3] that included address, telephone number and sex of the student. This list was to include only those students who (a) were enrolled at the college for the past two years and (b) were not enrolled there last fall. The list did not include students known to have died, been drafted, been graduated, transferred to a professional school, or dropped out since the fall term began. We indicated to the colleges that the sample could be stratified in such terms as special students, registrants in different schools, or in whatever terms would further their own interests. While the lists were being prepared pilot interviewing was done on twenty Roosevelt College drop-outs in order to standardize questions to be used. (See Appendix 1.) From this questionnaire three separate approaches used in the study were developed: the telephone interview, the mail questionnaire and the personal interview. We decided to interview face-to-face ten students out of the 100 from each college, telephone 45 students and send questionnaires to the remaining 45.

The decision to use three different approaches with the same standardized questions was made to satisfy our curiosity about which of the three approaches would yield the most fruitful results. The telephone interview was used by the staffs of the colleges involved who were assigned to do the telephoning. Center personnel had meetings with college staff members who were to do the interviewing. We discussed interviewing for research purposes in general to avoid some of the more obvious pitfalls of the interview situation. We then discussed the rationale of the questionnaire, went over the items in detail and finally role-played the telephone interview or made an actual call. Since the level of competence

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3. University of Chicago; DePaul: Loyola; Marquette; Northwestern University, Commerce; Northwestern, University College; Roosevelt College; University of Wisconsin.

of the interviewers ranged widely they were urged to follow the patterned questions as closely as possible so the responses could be coded. If any changes were made the interviewers were asked to indicate what they were. We felt the use of this approach would enable us to interview a wider sample of our population in a shorter time and would help reduce interviewer costs. The telephone interview eliminates some of the difficulties of the self administered mail questionnaire: all the questions are answered and the population is not selective in the same way. Use of the telephone interview selects out for the sample the middle or upper class respondents (those who have telephones) and eliminates those who are hard to reach by telephone. The self administered mail questionnaire on the other hand selects out the more articulate or conscientious, or dissatisfied people (those who would be likely to respond to a mail questionnaire) and eliminates the apathetic, disinterested or busy student.

The Self Administered Mail Questionnaire can be given to a large number of individuals simultaneously. This procedure, we felt, would avoid the disadvantage in the telephone interview and the personal interview of the time consuming procedure of questioning each individual separately. The mail questionnaire also permits a wider coverage of the population than either of the other two methods. The standardized wording and order of questions ensured some uniformity from one measurement situation to another. With this method there is no problem of interviewer-bias so that in quantifying the results it is not necessary to consider the investigator's personality. The mail questionnaire places less pressure on the subject for immediate response so that each item can be deliberated upon. The advantage of saliency in a personal interview is not present in a mail questionnaire, that is, the order in which the questions are answered can not be controlled.

The Personal Interview was used to get at complex, emotionally laden areas, to probe beyond public attitudes to the more covert private sentiments. The contextual effects of other questions upon a given answer can be controlled in a personal interview: later questions can be hidden from the knowledge of the respondent and have no effect on the results of an earlier question. The interviewer can be thought of as a biasing agent but he may also be an insightful and helpful person. He can make ratings of given characteristics of the respondent, explain or amplify a given question, probe for clarification of an ambiguous answer or elaboration of a cryptic one, and persuade the respondent to answer a question he might otherwise skip. In the fact-to-face interviewing there was some attempt through the use of open-ended questions which invited discussion of certain topics and depth interviewing to get at a more genuine picture of the constellation of attitudes the dropout has in relation to the evening school. It was assumed that the richer and deeper and lengthier the remarks of the respondent, the more likely is this to be the genuine picture of his attitude. The interviewer continued to probe and question the validity of thin answers. There was also some attempt to avoid distorting the situation by remembering that there are some people with no hidden depths and with only superficial attitudes in certain areas. In such instances we felt that repeated probing would only suggest dimensions that were never operative in the first place.

Representative Character of the Findings

Some of the colleges had difficulty compiling a list of 100 names with the requirements previously suggested. This difficulty was related to the size of the enrolment: the smaller the evening college population at any institution the more difficult was the task of supplying us with 100 names. The population selected for study, however, represented at least 50% of the dropouts in each institution. The sample selected constituted 800 students, each evening school supplying 100. Out of this group from each college we planned to interview ten (total: 80) using the personal interview; 45 (total: 360) using the telephone interview; and 45 (total: 360) using the mail questionnaire. The percentage response by each of the three different methods employed is indicated in Table I.

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE FOR THE 3 DIFFERENT METHODS

		Total of All Interviews
Personal Interview	84% (67 out of 80)	19%
Telephone Interview	37% (132 out of 360)	38%
Mail Questionnaire	42% (151 out of 360)	43%
Total	44% (350 out of 800)	100%

ANALYSIS

In analyzing the responses for each item on the questionnaire we found the students fell into several distinct classifications. Where responses to any one item pointed up several definite groupings whose pattern of response throughout the whole questionnaire was significantly different they were handled separately and compared. The following were then considered isolable characteristics of the student: his credit status, sex, length of time at the college, reasons given for dropping out, intentions to return to school, educational plans and whether he missed school or not. There was some attempt to relate these characteristics to the dissatisfactions expressed. Some conclusion had to be reached as to which of the characteristics of the dropout were most important since they overlap considerably.

All in all seven pairs of characteristics emerged from the responses. The credit and non-credit groups, male and female groups, oldtimers and newcomers, students dropping out for reasons related to the self and those dropping out for reasons related to the college, the returning and not returning groups, the vocationally minded and culturally oriented groups, and students dropping out of school with some reluctance and those dropping out gladly.

Credit and Non-Credit Students

The deans and directors of the colleges involved were asked to stratify their sample in any way they wished within the limitations of the general research design. The grouping most of ten made was the credit, non-credit one. No attempt was made to sharpen the definition of what constitutes a "credit" student and what constitutes a "non-credit" student. These definitions varied from institution to institution, so that a credit student at the very least may be anyone who is enroled in a credit course, or more precisely he may be a degree candidate. Non-credit students on the other hand may be anyone who is enrolled in a non-credit course, or he may be a student who has indicated he is not working for a degree. The classifications were used as given by the participating colleges with all students who were listed as non-degree included in non-credit classification (N -24).

About eight out of ten students interviewed were listed as credit, and two out of ten as non-credit. See Table II.

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE OF CREDIT AND NON-CREDIT STUDENTS IN RELATION TO THEIR OWN AND TOTAL GROUP

	Percentage response in relation to credit or non-credit group	Percentage response in relation to total group
Credit Students	48% (289 out of 611)	83%
Non-credit students	32% (61 out of 189)	17%

The differences between the two groups can be noted in Table III. Only those differences which are significant are included; those characteristics and responses not included can be assumed to be sufficiently similar so as not to be noted.

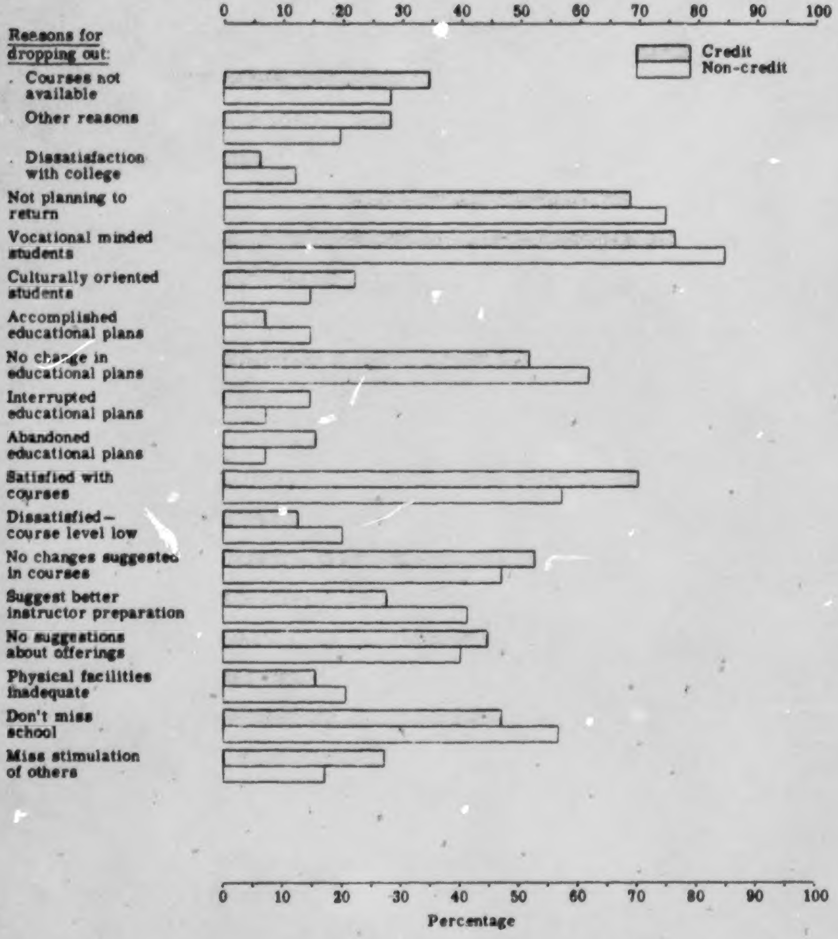
Both the credit and non-credit group had the same proportion of those who had been enroled more than two years and those who had been enroled less (more: 79%, less: 21%). Unexpectedly a larger proportion of women were represented in the credit group than in the non-credit group (32% credit; 29% non-credit).

In replying to the item on taking courses elsewhere an exceptionally high percentage of the non-credit group said that they were not (91% compare with 85% of total group). Of the credit group, 88% responded that they were not taking courses elsewhere.

Of the non-credit group, 42% indicated that reasons relating to the self were the most important consideration in their decision to drop out. But a larger percentage than indicated in any other breakdown, 58%, indicated that they dropped out for reasons relating to the college. Highest in causes isolated among this kind of

TABLE III

PAIRED PERCENTAGES OF CREDIT AND NON-CREDIT STUDENTS NOTING DIFFERENCES OF 5 PER CENT AND OVER



reasons was that courses were not available, 33%; listed next was dissatisfaction with the college, 14% (as contrasted with 8% of total group: and third was financial reasons 11%.

In the credit group the reasons relating to the self and to the college were nearly equal: 49%, self and 51% college. Of the group, 27% responded with courses not available as their reason for dropping out. Next highest was other reasons not connected with the university, then job cause (20%) and financial reasons (16%). The credit group responses were not significantly different from the total group response.

Of the credit group 69% and 75% of the non-credit group indicated that they were not planning to come back. And 26% of the credit group and 23% of the non-credit group replied that they were planning to come back to the university involved.

Of the credit group 78% were classified as vocational minded and 22% as culture yearners. This seems to contradict our original contention that non-credit students would tend to have a higher proportion of culture yearners than credit students.

On the question of whether original plans had changed since beginning evening school, 52% of the credit group and 62% of the non-credit group indicated no change. Fifteen per cent of credit students and 6% of non-credit students saw their dropping out as an interruption (total group: 15%). Of the credit group, 17% as contrasted with 7% of the non-credit group had abandoned their original plans. (Total: 15%).

The non-credit students showed up as a more critical group than the credit students. Of the non-credit group, 58% indicated satisfaction with the courses compared to 70% for the credit group and the total group. Of the non-credit group, 20% thought that the level was too low (14% of the credit group and the total group gave this response). Of the non-credit group, 9% thought the courses "too theoretical" as compared with 5% of the credit group and 5% of the total group. Both groups approximated the total percentage on the question of the courses not being organized response, 5%, and that there was too much homework 7%.

On changes suggested, 41% of the non-credit group indicated that better preparation by instructors would be desirable contrasted with the 29% of both the credit and total group. Of the non-credit group, 9% thought more discussion would be desirable as compared to 7% and 8% for the credit and total groups respectively. Of the non-credit group, 46% had no suggestions to make compared with 54% of the credit group. The non-credit group showed up as the more articulate of the two in their suggestions.

This same dominance of the non-credit group in critical attitude showed up on the question of what kind of courses could be offered that would renew the student's interest. Of the credit group, 61% were satisfied or had no suggestions to make compared with 55% of the non-credit group. Of the non-credit group, 40% suggested giving additional courses; of the credit group, 36% suggested more courses. (Total group: 34%.) Of the non-credit group, 5% made suggestions for the present offerings and 3% of the credit group did likewise.

In regard to dissatisfaction with college policy as a reason for dropping out both groups broke down percentage wise exactly as the total group: 86% indicated that this had nothing to do with their dropping out; 10% indicated their dissatisfaction with the administration.

In expressing dissatisfaction about the facilities and services of the college, the non-credit group also showed itself to be more articulate: 21% of the group were dissatisfied with the physical facilities compared to 16% of the credit group. Of the credit group, 77% said they were satisfied as did 73% of the non-credit group.

In answer to the question of whether the student missed evening school or not, 48% of the credit group replied "no" to 57% of the non-credit group. The most interesting difference was that 27% of the credit group said they missed most the stimulation of other people to 18% for the non-credit group. This answer also seems to contradict one of our original presuppositions: that non-credit students who dropped out would be more likely to miss the stimulation of other people than credit students. Both groups gave proportionally the same percentage of students who missed the feeling of self improvement and the organization school gives to spare time (21% and 6% respectively).

Male and Female Students

In this sample of 800, 13 out of 20 students were males and seven out of 20 females. Proportionally the response from the male and female group was the same. See Table IV,

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE BY SEX

	Percentage response in relation to sex group	Percentage response in relation to total group
Males	44% (230 out of 520)	65% (230)
Females	43% (120 out of 280)	35% (120)

The differences between the two group is noted in Table V.

Both groups had proportionally the same percentage of credit and non-credit students. Male students were more inclined to locate their reasons for dropping out in the college than were the women: 52% of the men indicated they dropped out for reasons relating to the college as contrasted to 48% of the women. The male group also had a higher percentage indicating that they were not planning to return or were going to register elsewhere (68%). This preponderance seems to substantiate the dissatisfaction noted above and suggests the more articulate formulation of dissatisfactions by male students. The female group who were not returning or planning to register elsewhere constituted 54% of the group. In line with out presupposition, the percentage of women who could be considered culture yearners was higher than in the male group (30% and 20% respectively). On the other hand, there was an unexpectedly high percentage of women who are vocationally oriented (70%). A larger percentage of women also indicated that their plans had been completed, their objectives having originally been to take work short of a degree: 13% of the women and 8% of the men had accomplished what they started out to do. The educational plans of the male group seemed to be more persistent and long range: 54%

indicated no change in their original plans, and 16% saw dropping out as an interruption, total group: 70%. In contrast, 44% of the female group indicated that their plans had not changed and 12% saw dropping out as an interruption (56% total). A larger group of women than men indicated that they had abandoned their original plans (22% of women as contrasted to 12% of the men). The male students were more critical of the college, mentioning in regard to courses that the level was too low, 17% (10% of the women mentioned this); that there was too much homework, 8% (6% of the female group). Changes suggested were: better preparation by instructor, 34% (20% of the female group); and more discussion, 6% (this contrasts strikingly with the 12% females who suggested more discussion). The female group, however, was a little more articulate in suggesting new courses: 38% as compared with males, 31%. Absence of suggestions or satisfaction with present offerings was represented: women, 59%; men, 62%. Dissatisfaction with the administration was proportionally the same in both groups (10%). A slightly larger percentage of women, 17%, than men, 15%, were dissatisfied with the physical facilities. A larger percentage of the female group, 62%, indicated that they missed evening school than did the males, 55%.

Of the female group, 39% missed the stimulation of other people compared to 25% for the male group (total group: 30%). A proportionally larger group of the male students, however, indicated that they missed the feeling of getting ahead (24% as contrasted with 18% for the female group). Of both groups 6% indicated that they missed the organization and scheduling that evening school gave their spare time.

Oldtimes and Newcomers

We attempted to separate the students into an oldtimers group, those who had attended more than two years, and a newcomers group, those who had attended less than two years. Of all the students interviewed, 79% had attended more than two years. See Table VI.

There was a larger proportion of women in the newcomers group, 44% of the newcomers, 32% of the oldtimers. A slightly

TABLE V

PAIRED PERCENTAGES OF MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS
NOTING DIFFERENCES OF 5 PER CENT AND OVER

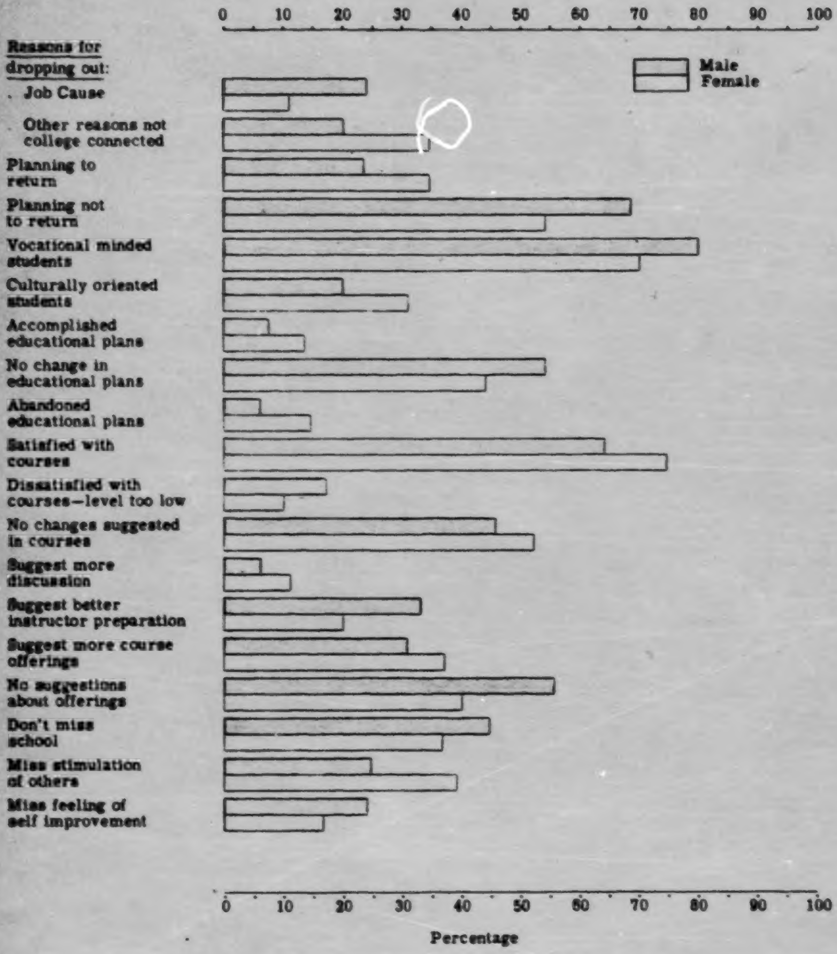


TABLE VI

LENGTH OF TIME AT COLLEGE

More than 2 years	79%
Less than 2 years	21%

The differences between the two groups is noted in Table VII.

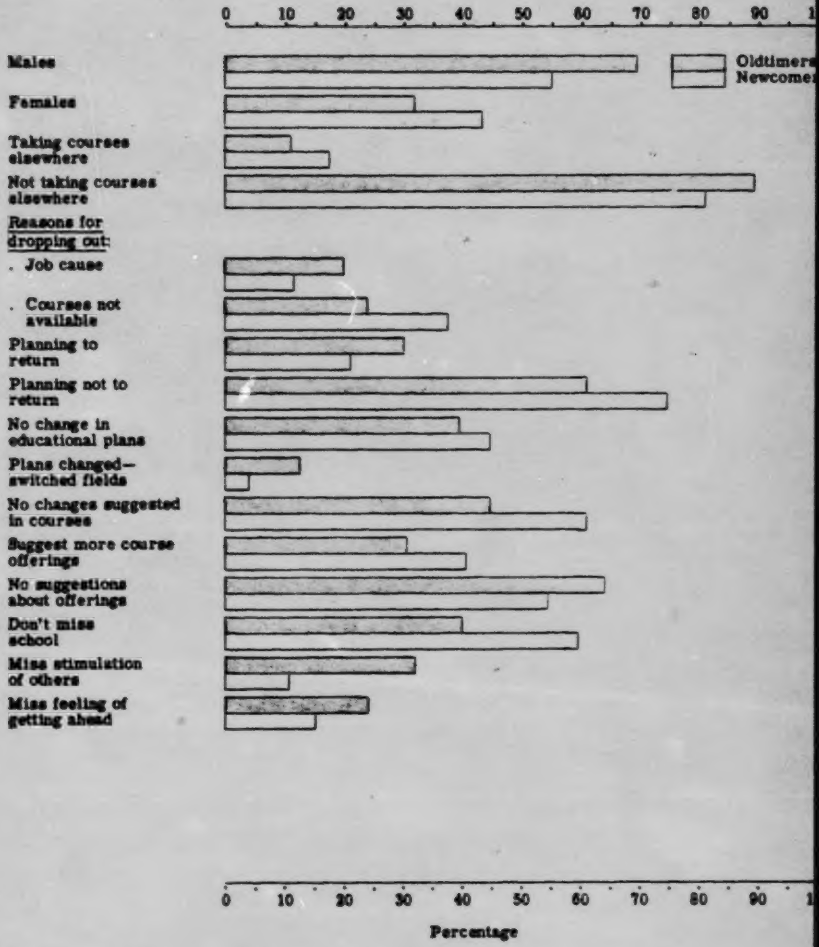
higher percentage of the newcomers group also indicated that they were taking courses elsewhere, 18% as compared with 12% of the oldtimer group. The most striking difference between the two groups appeared in the responses to why the student dropped out. Of the oldtimers group 52% listed reasons that related to the self highest (this group breaks down as follows: other reasons not connected with university, 25%; job cause, 21%; and health, 6%). In the newcomers group only 37% listed reasons related to the self and 63% reasons relating to the college. The highest single reason given was that courses were not available, 38%. Next listed were other reasons not connected with the university, 22%; finances, 17%; and job cause, 13%.

A larger percentage of the newcomers group indicated that they were going elsewhere, 17%, than did the oldtimers group, 8%. A slightly higher percentage of the newcomers group replied that their plans had not changed: 55% compared with 49% for the oldtimers group. This difference combined with the response indicating that the student has switched fields or decided to work for a degree (oldtimers, 11%; newcomers, 4%) suggests the greater impact of the evening school experience the longer it lasts. The oldtimers group were slightly less satisfied with the courses than were the newcomers group, 68% to 72%. And the oldtimers were more articulate in their suggestions: 15% thought the level was too low compared to 13% of the newcomers group); 9% suggested more discussion, compared to 5% of the newcomers group; 8% suggested less homework compared to 1% of the newcomers group; and 30% suggested better preparation by the instructor compared to 26% of the newcomers.

Of the newcomers group 42% suggested more course offerings

TABLE VII

PAIRED PERCENTAGES OF OLDTIMERS AND NEWCOMERS NOTING DIFFERENCES OF 5 PER CENT AND OVER



compared to 31% of the oldtimers, a difference which relates to the dissatisfaction expressed about courses not being available. A slightly higher percentage of the newcomer group, 79%, indicated that they thought the facilities were more adequate than did the oldtimers group, 75%.

As was originally expected, a greater proportion of the newcomers group responded that they did not miss school, 58% compared to 39% of the oldtimers. A higher percentage of the oldtimers group, 33%, replied that they missed most the stimulation of other people. In regard to missing the feeling of getting ahead, the difference was newcomers, 16%; oldtimers, 21%.

To the question of whether they were taking courses elsewhere, 15% of the oldtimers responded that they were and 85% replied in the negative. No significant differences in response to the items was noted. The very high percentage of dropouts who are not attending other institutions may suggest the relatively permanent clientele that each institution has developed. Further research in this area of differential clienteles which support the evening colleges would uncover important information about them which would help the college in curriculum building, promotion, and recruitment.

Reasons for Dropping Out

In relation to reasons for dropping out, two general categories of responses emerged: those who gave reasons relating to the self and those who gave reasons relating to the college. See Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

REASONS FOR DROPPING OUT

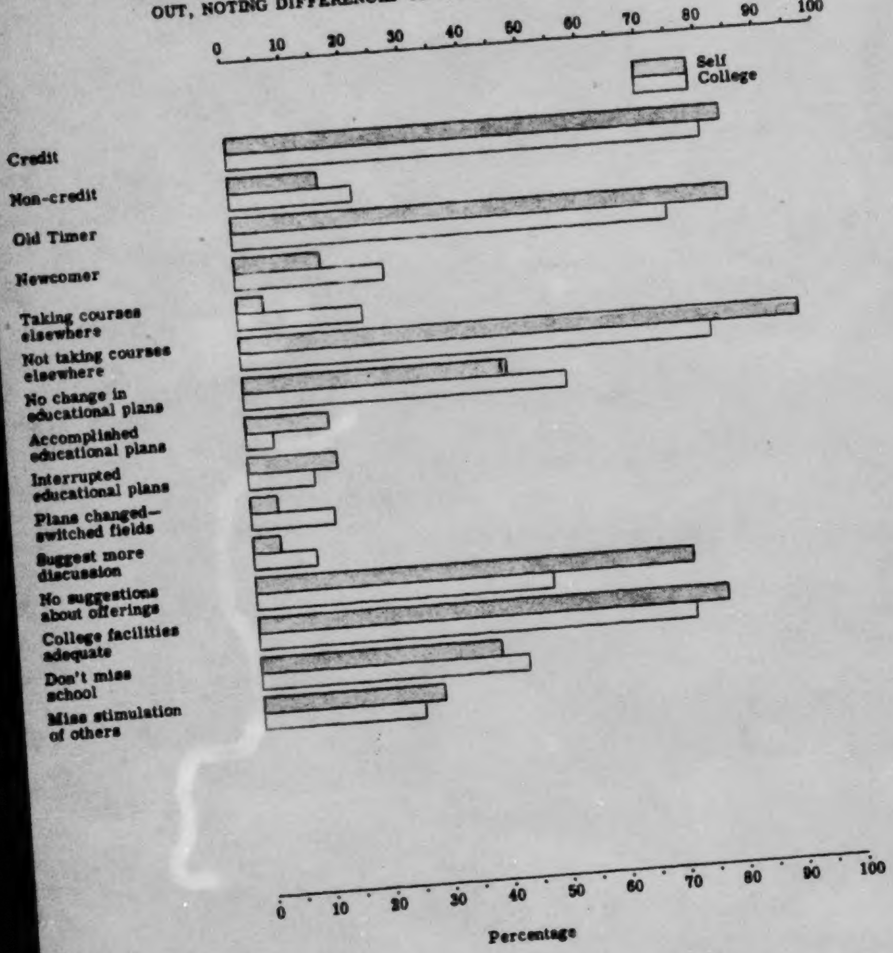
SELF		COLLEGE	
Job cause	20%	Courses not available	27%
Health reasons	5%	Financial reasons	17%
Other reasons not connected with univ.	23%	Dissatisfied with college	8%
Total	48%	Total	52%

Self-College Differences

Fifty-two per cent of the students indicated that something about the college led to their decision to drop out, lumping together the categories: courses not available, 27%; financial reasons which imply some suggestion about universities' policies, 17%; and dissatisfaction with the college, 8%. The remaining responses related to the self and totaled 48%, lumping together job causes, 20%; health reasons, 5%; and miscellaneous reasons not connected with the university, 23%. Those who indicated that something about the college led to their decision to dropout and the remainder of the group who dropped for reasons relating to the self are contrasted in Table IX. In regard to reasons for dropping out, men and women were represented in the self reasons and college reasons categories proportionally the same; so were credit and non-credit students. However, a larger proportion of the students who were newcomers were represented in the college reasons group, 26%, than were represented in the self reasons group, 16%. Those in the self reasons group were less likely to be enroled anywhere else at the time. This contrasts with the 78% of the college reasons group who said they were not taking courses elsewhere. Of the college reasons group 22% were going to another school. In answer to the questions of whether they planned to register again at their former school, a larger percentage of the self reasons group, 60%, indicated that they were not planning to come back and 5% that they were going elsewhere. This contrasts with the lower percentage of the group who said they had no plans to come back (46%), while 29% indicated they were coming back and 16% were going elsewhere. Both groups were proportionally represented by the vocational minded and culture yearners. A larger percentage of the college reasons group than the self reasons group indicated that their plans had not changed, 55% to 46%. This difference may say something about the impact of the evening school experience on those who drop out for personal reasons and the implication this has for vocational guidance. A larger percentage of the self reasons group also mentioned that they had accomplished what they started to do, 14% to 6% for the college reasons group. This difference suggests the

TABLE IX

PAIRED PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS WHO LISTED SELF REASONS AND THOSE WHO LISTED COLLEGE REASONS FOR DROPPING OUT, NOTING DIFFERENCES OF 5 PER CENT AND OVER



relatively vague and unformulated plans that the self reasons group enters evening school with, so that any sort of an ending can be considered an accomplished objective. Here the university can bring assistance to bear for a more articulate formulation of educational plans after the student enters evening school. Of the self reasons group, 17% saw their dropping out as an interruption (those who indicated that health reasons, marriage plans and calls to service were responsible for their dropping out), contrasted with 12% of the college reasons group who so viewed their dropping out. Of the self reasons group, 17% also indicated that they had abandoned their original plans; only 14% of the college reasons group had abandoned their original plans. A larger percentage of the college reasons group also indicated that they had switched fields or decided to work for a degree, 14% as contrasted with 5% in the self reasons group.

It could be expected that those who indicated that some aspects of the college were directly related to their dropping out would be more critical than those in the self reasons group, but in the area of dissatisfaction with courses, methods or policies there was not as much difference as originally expected. Of the college reasons group, 11% suggested that more class discussion would be desirable as contrasted with only 5% of the self reasons group. On the other hand, of the self reasons group, 31% suggested better preparation on the part of the instructor as compared with 27% for the college reasons group. The college reasons group indicated a slightly higher dissatisfaction with facilities and services, 26% than did the self reasons group, 21%. Most of this dissatisfaction was focused on physical facilities: college reasons group, 17%; self reasons group, 14%.

In regard to whether they missed school or not, 41% of the self reasons group responded that they did not miss school compared with 46% of the college reasons group. A higher percentage of the self reasons group replied that they missed the stimulation of other people, 32% as compared with 27% for the college reasons group.

The most often-mentioned single reason for dropping out by the college reasons group was that courses were not available, 27%.

The students who responded in this way were isolated and checked against all the items in the questionnaire. It was found that a larger proportion of non-credit than credit students gave this as a reason, and that more students who were newcomers did also. Of those who gave this answer, an unusually high proportion indicated that they were taking courses elsewhere: 26% compared with 15% of the total group. These students also had a tendency (using total response as the norm) to indicate plans for going elsewhere next semester or quarter and less tendency to return to the college involved. This group also tended to have a higher proportion of culturally oriented people who were less critical than the total group. In commenting on course offerings, a higher percentage of this group suggested offering more courses in different fields. These students had less tendency to miss school; when they did they missed the stimulation of others most.

Plans for Registering Again

In answering the question as to whether they planned to register for evening courses any place next semester or quarter, one in ten indicated that they were undecided and five out of ten replied they were not. Three in ten replied that they planned to return to the college involved and one in ten responded that they planned to go to another school. See Table X.

TABLE X

PLANS FOR REGISTERING AGAIN

Undecided	8%
Not returning	54%
Planning to go to another university or agency	11%
Coming back to university involved	27%

Out of the responses to this question two separate groupings emerge: those who are planning to return and those who are planning not to return, including those who plan to go elsewhere. These two groups were isolated and compared. The differences can be noted in Table XI.

A larger proportion of women than men indicated that they were returning, 44% compared with the 29% who replied that they were not. A smaller proportion of students, 7%, who replied they were returning also indicated that they were not taking courses elsewhere as contrasted with those not returning, of whom 16% replied that they were going to another school. A larger percentage of the group intending to return also indicated that they saw dropping out as an interruption to their plans, 19% contrasted with 10% of those not returning. The students not planning to return were more critical of instruction: 31% of them thought the instructors should be better prepared, contrasted with 26% of the returning group. The latter, however, were more articulate in suggesting offerings, 39% requesting more courses as compared to 30% of the group not returning; and 6% compared to 4% of the group not returning made suggestions for present offerings. A higher percentage of the group not returning were dissatisfied with the administration, 13% to 9% for the returning group. On facilities and services the returning group was much more critical: 33% thought them inadequate compared to 19% of the group not returning. The most dissatisfaction focused on physical facilities: 8% of the group not returning were dissatisfied with the lack of adequate counseling services.

As would be expected, those planning to return indicated that they missed school most: 70% to 43% of the group not returning. The returning group missed most the stimulation of other people, 38% to 21% of the group not returning, and next the feeling of getting ahead, 27% to 19%.

Vocationally Minded and Culturally Oriented Students

Out of the responses to the question on educational plans, two general classifications emerged. In comparing these two groups—the vocationally minded and the culturally oriented—some of the preliminary description is substantiated and amplified and parts of that description are not supported. See Table XII.

TABLE XI

PAIRED PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WHO ARE PLANNING TO RETURN AND WHO ARE NOT PLANNING TO RETURN NOTING DIFFERENCES OF 5 PER CENT AND OVER

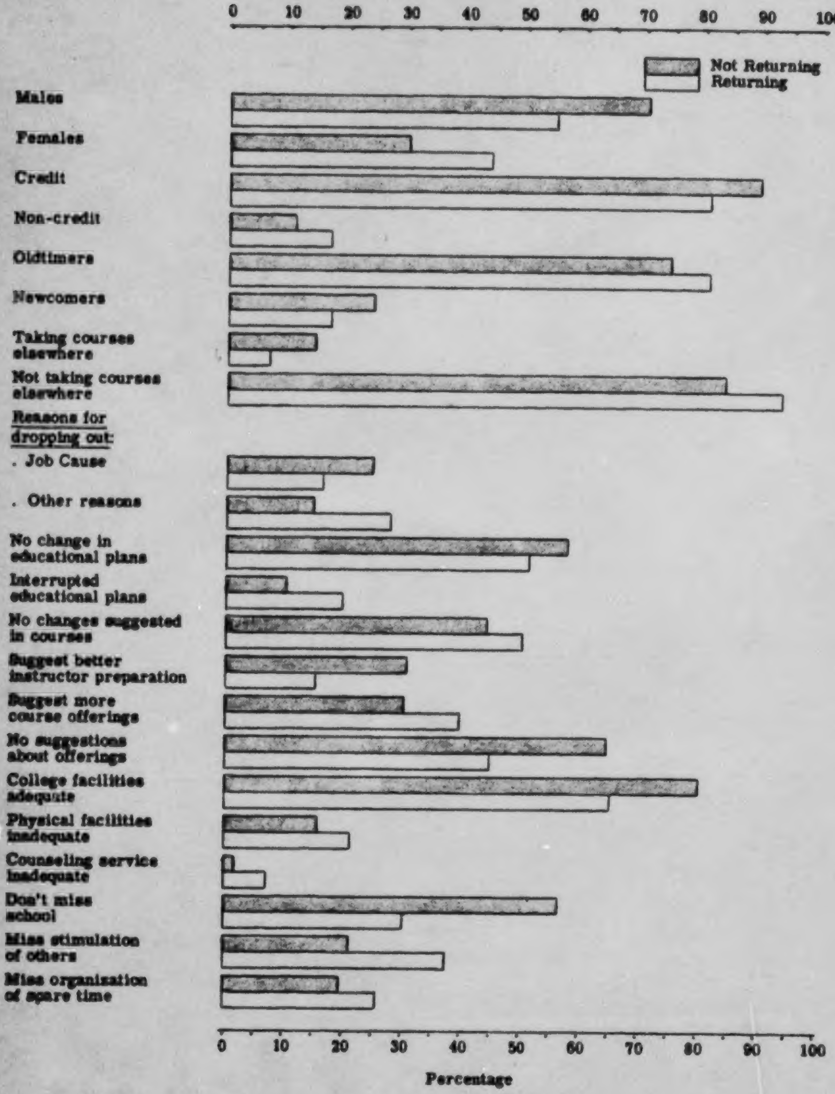


TABLE XII

ORIGINAL EDUCATIONAL PLANS

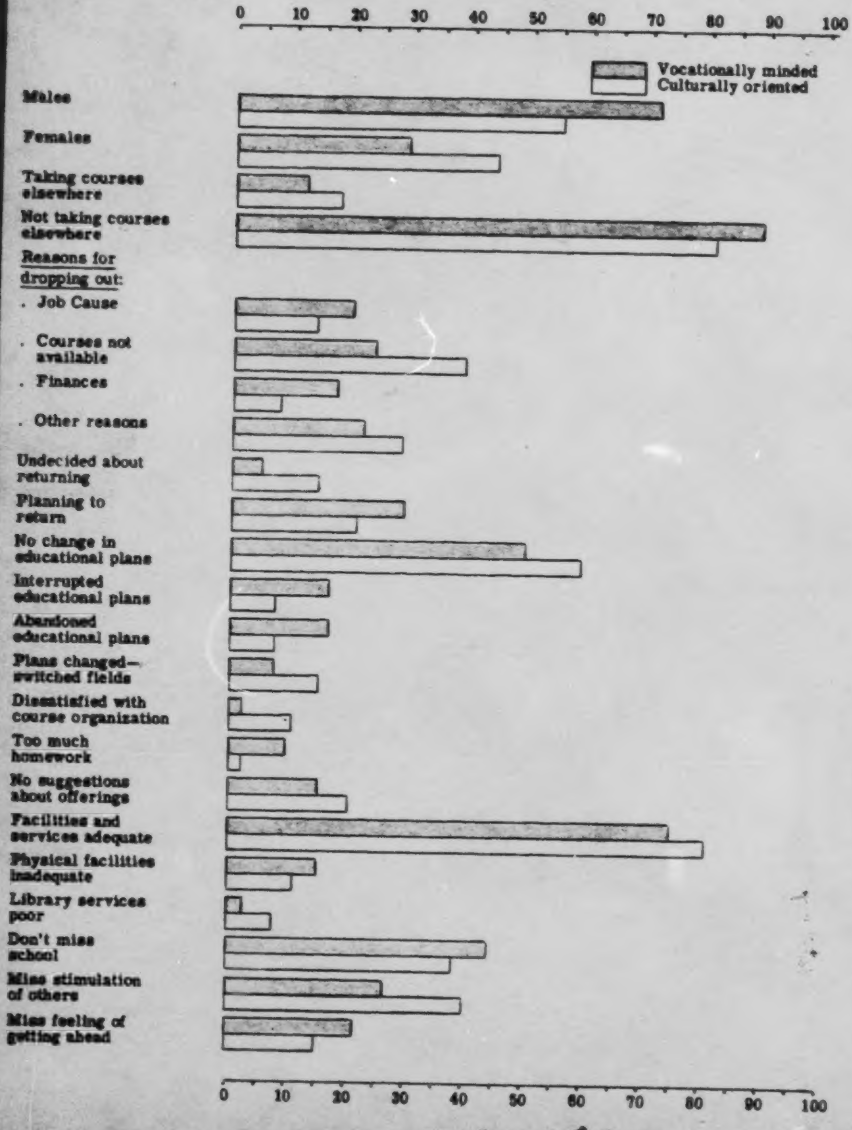
Vocationally Minded Group		Culturally Oriented Group	
Courses would help me in my work—degree in mind	9%	"Cultural" reasons	21%
Courses would help me in my work—no degree in mind	23%	Maximize social contacts	1%
Preparation for an occupation or a profession	24%		
To get a degree—get a better job	22%		
Total	78%	Total	22%

The 86% of credit students among the vocationally minded was slightly higher than among the culturally oriented, but not as much as originally expected. (See Table XIII.) The differences between the two groups in the sex breakdown, however, are more sharply defined: 71% of the vocationally minded group were males compared to 57% of the culturally oriented group (total group: 65%).

On reasons for dropping out there were no significant differences noticeable between the vocationally minded and the culturally oriented groups on factors relating to college reasons or to self reasons. In a further breakdown in the self and college reasons groupings differences do emerge. Only 14% of the culturally oriented group noted that their job was the reason for dropping out as contrasted to 21% of the vocationally minded group replying thus. Of the culturally oriented group, 39% indicated that they dropped out because courses were not available as against 24% of the vocationally minded group. The unavailability of courses was the reason most often given by

TABLE XIII

PAIRED PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS WHO ARE VOCATIONALLY MINDED AND CULTURALLY ORIENTED NOTING DIFFERENCES OF 5 PER CENT AND OVER



both groups. Next came reasons not connected with the university: vocationally minded, 23%; culturally oriented, 29%. Following that, job cause was listed as most important in the decision to drop out. A much larger percentage of the vocationally minded group than the culturally oriented listed financial reasons as an important consideration, 18% to 8%.

Regarding plans for returning to evening school, a slightly larger proportion of the vocationally minded indicated that they were not planning to return: 65% contrasted to 63% for the culturally oriented group. Of the vocationally minded group, 29% did have definite plans for returning to the college they left, compared to 22% of the culturally oriented group. Of the culturally oriented group, 15% were undecided about what they were going to do in contrast to only 6% of the vocationally minded group who were undecided. This difference suggests a tendency toward the vague formulation of educational plans that some of the culturally oriented group exhibited as described earlier here.

Forty-eight per cent of the vocationally minded group and 59% of the culturally oriented group indicated that they had not changed their plans since beginning evening school. The higher percentage of culturally oriented who indicated this may suggest that this kind of a response is connected with plans that are not too well defined in the first place. Connecting this response with the small percentage of culturally oriented students, the assumption might be made that evening college experience had helped them define their aims a little more specifically, for 16% of the group indicated that they had switched fields or decided to work for a degree. Only 8% of the vocationally minded group indicated that they had changed their plans in this way, a difference which points up the sharper focus that the vocationally minded student brings to his evening school work. Of the vocationally minded group, 17% replied that they had abandoned their original plans as compared with only 8% of the culturally oriented group.

Contrary to our original presupposition, the dissatisfactions expressed by both groups showed no significant differences. Both groups expressed satisfaction about the courses offered, vocationally minded, 70%; culturally minded, 69% with the vocationally minded varying to the extent that "too much homework" was mentioned more often than in the culturally oriented group (9% to 2%). On suggesting changes, 48% of the vocationally minded and 49% of the culturally oriented had no suggestions. Both groups had 29% who thought there should be better preparation on the part of the instructor. Concerning the kinds of courses offered, the vocationally minded responded 33% and the culturally minded 34% in suggesting more courses. The culturally oriented were more satisfied with the course offerings than were the vocationally minded: 21% to 16%; and the former were a little less articulate in their suggestions about the kinds of courses the college could offer, 43% to 48% had no suggestions. The vocationally minded were slightly more articulate about their dissatisfactions with the college's facilities and services: 25% thought that they were inadequate contrasted to only 19% of the culturally oriented group. Of the vocationally minded, 17% were unhappy about the physical facilities as compared to 12% of the culturally oriented. Of the vocationally minded, 11% were dissatisfied with the administration as compared with 8% of the culturally oriented group.

As was originally expected, a larger proportion of the vocationally minded group indicated that they did not miss school: 44% to 38% for the culturally oriented group. In regard to missing school, 41% of the culturally oriented group indicated that they would miss the stimulation of other people, whereas only 27% of the vocationally minded group so indicated. This is the most striking difference noted between the two groups. When the vocationally minded student did miss evening school he was more likely to miss the feeling of not getting ahead (23% contrasted to 17% of the culturally oriented group).

How Original Plans Have Changed

Half of the group surveyed felt that their plans had not changed; one out of ten accomplished what they started out to do, and the same proportion decided to work for a degree or switched fields; a little over one out of ten abandoned their original plans, and the same proportion indicated that their dropping out was merely an interruption. See Table XIV.

TABLE XIV

HOW ORIGINAL PLANS HAVE CHANGED

No change	50%
Accomplished what I started out to do	10%
Dropping out is an interruption	15%
Abandoned original plans	15%
Decided to work for a degree or switched fields	10%

Dissatisfaction with the College

A large proportion of the group polled, seven out of ten, were satisfied that the courses they took turned out to be what they expected when they enroled. Three out of ten students indicated that they were dissatisfied. A little over one out of ten thought the level was too low and about one in 14 were dissatisfied with the homework. See Table XV.

TABLE XV

ATTITUDES TOWARD THE COURSES

Satisfied	70%
Dissatisfied	30%
1. Level too low	14%
2. Too theoretical	5%
3. Not organized	4%
4. Too much homework	7%

Suggestions for Improvement

Half of the students interviewed had no suggestions to make about the way the courses were taught. By far the largest percentage of students who made suggestions thought that there should be better preparation by the instructor, three out of ten. See Table XVI.

TABLE XVI

SUGGESTIONS ABOUT THE COURSES

No suggestions	49%
More class discussion	8%
Smaller classes	2%
More individual attention	6%
Less heavy homework	6%
Better instructor preparation	29%

One-third of the group suggested giving more courses in the different fields. The scatter was not significant. About half of those polled had no suggestions, but only two in ten indicated that they were satisfied with the present offerings. Those who wanted more courses broke down into those who suggested credit courses in the different fields and those who wanted more "practical" courses, including all types of non-credit courses, hobby courses and all suggestions to take classes to the community. Those suggesting shorter courses (only three in 100) expressed concern over scheduling, that is, related courses not meeting on the same night of the week. See Table XVII.

TABLE XVII

SUGGESTIONS FOR COURSE OFFERINGS

Give more courses in different fields	34%
1. Natural sciences	2%
2. Social Sciences	8%
3. Humanities	5%
4. Commerce	7%
5. Engineering	2%
6. More practical courses	10%
Satisfied with present offerings	17%
No suggestions	46%
Shorter courses	3%

A very large proportion of the group, eight out of ten, replied that there were no specific things about the college or its policies that accounted for their dropping out. Of those who indicated dissatisfaction, one out of ten located their dissatisfaction with the administration. See Table XVIII.

TABLE XVIII

DISSATISFACTION WITH COLLEGE POLICIES

Satisfied	86%
Dissatisfied	14%
1. Liberal political views of college	1%
2. High tuition	2%
3. Dissatisfaction with administration	10%
4. Dissatisfied with lower prestige of evening school	1%

Three-fourths of the group responded that they felt the facilities and services of the college were adequate. About two in ten did not think the physical facilities were up to par. One in ten complained of poorly lit or overcrowded class rooms. There was no significant relationship between those who mentioned the lack of adequate counseling service (three in 100) and any other characteristic of the student population. We can safely assume that those who mentioned this area had some contact with the counseling services that they thought inadequate. The questionnaire and interview were not designed to explore the dropout's awareness of the counseling service nor his use of it. It should be pointed out here that all the items on the questionnaire can somehow be related to the counseling setup at the colleges involved. See Table XIX.

TABLE XIX

ATTITUDES TOWARD COLLEGE FACILITIES AND SERVICES

Adequate	76%
Dissatisfied with physical facilities	16%
1. Poorly lit or over-crowded classrooms	8%
2. Parking	4%
3. Elevators	2%
4. No area in which students can be sociable	2%
Lack of adequate counseling service	3%
Library services poor	3%
Gen'l. dissatisfaction	2%

Feelings About Evening College

Four out of ten students who had dropped out indicated that they did not miss evening school. The remaining six in ten indicated that they did miss school for several reasons: three in ten missed the stimulation of other students; two in ten missed the feeling of getting ahead; and one in ten missed the organization and scheduling evening school gave their spare time. See Table XX.

TABLE XX

FEELINGS ABOUT NOT GOING TO EVENING SCHOOL

Don't miss it	43%
Miss it	57%
1. Miss the stimulation of other students	30%
2. Miss feeling of getting ahead	21%
3. Miss organization it gave my spare time	6%

Two Groups: Those Who Miss School and Those Who Don't

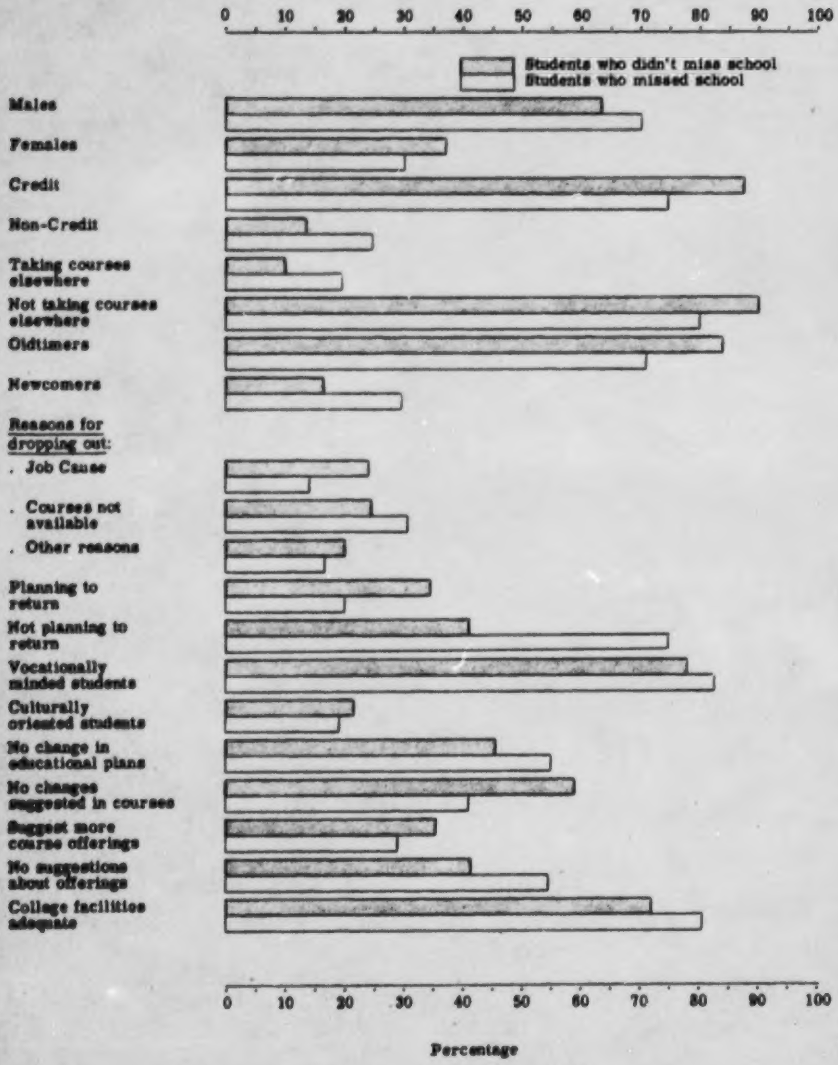
The responses of those students who missed school after dropping out and those who did not were considered significant and compared. It was assumed that this close study would yield some kind of a picture of the type of student who goes to evening college and his reactions to the experience. We can observe the following differences (see Table XXI).

There is a larger proportion of males to females (about two to one) in the group not missing school than in the missing school group (about 3 males to 2 females). There is also a larger proportion of credit students in the group missing school (9 out of 10) than in the group not missing school (8 out of 10). Whether or not a student missed school or not also seemed to have something to do with the length of time he had spent there: a larger proportion of those who had been there over two years missed school than did those who had been there less than two years. The group missing school was composed of 63% men and 37% women as contrasted to the group not missing school, which was composed of 70% men and 30% women. Considering the distribution by sexes in the total group, female students seemed to miss the evening school experience more than the men did. Of the group missing school, 86% were credit students, as compared to 75% of the group not missing school; and 14% non-credit students, as compared to 25% of the group not missing school. Non-credit students seem to miss evening school more. Of the group missing school, 84% had been enroled over two years, and 71% of the group not missing school had too; 16% of the group missing school and 29% of the group not missing school had been enroled less than two years. The longer the enrolment the more attachment to evening school. Of the group missing school only 10% were taking courses elsewhere, contrasted with 19% of the group not missing school. When the feeling of missing school is present there is less tendency to register elsewhere.

The breakdown of self reasons and college reasons categories for dropping out for the group missing school was 52% for self reasons (46% of the group not missing school) and 48% for college reasons (54% of the group not missing school). There seems to be a tendency for those who dropped out for college reasons not to

TABLE XXI

PAIRED PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WHO MISS SCHOOL AND WHO DON'T MISS SCHOOL NOTING DIFFERENCES OF 5 PER CENT AND OVER



miss school. As was expected, the group missing school had a larger percentage of students who indicated that they were planning to come back to the college involved: 35% as compared with 20% for the group not missing school. Of the group missing school, 76% were vocationally minded as compared to 81% of the group not missing school; and 24% were culturally oriented, as compared to 19% of the group not missing school. This difference suggests that there was more of a tendency among the culturally oriented to miss school than there was among the vocationally minded, a conclusion substantiating our original presupposition.

Of the group missing school, 47% indicated that they had not changed their plans since beginning evening school; 56% of the group not missing school responded similarly. Of the group not missing school, 24% saw their dropping out as an interruption or indicated that they had abandoned their original plans for some reason as contrasted with 34% of the group missing schools. In both groups, 10% indicated that they changed fields after going to evening school for awhile or had decided to work for a degree.

A large proportion of both groups (the group missing school: 68%; the group not missing: 71%) indicated that they were satisfied with the courses. The dissatisfactions concentrated on the complaint that the level was too low (the group missing school: 14%; the group not missing school: 15%) and too much homework (the group missing school: 9%; the group not missing school: 4%). The group not missing school was also much more articulate about suggestions for courses (58% offered suggestions to 42% for the other group). This difference was the most striking between the two groups. Concerning the kinds of courses the college could give that would renew interest, 59% of the group missing school (and 71% of the other group) indicated that they were satisfied with what was there and had no suggestions. The group missing school responded a little more than the other group on offering more courses, 37% and 28%. The response of both groups to the question as to whether there were any specific things about the college or its policies that accounted dropping out was not significantly different from the total response (see Table XXI). A larger percentage, 81% of the group not missing school, was satisfied with the facilities and services of the college than was the other group, 73%. The group missing school was a little bit more dissatisfied with the physical facilities, 17% than was the other group, 14%.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

In developing typologies or categories for studying students who drop out, the vocationally minded and culturally oriented were suggested as the most significant classifications. The original description of student types was borne out in the research with some modifications, no significant differences were noted in expression of dissatisfactions between the vocationally minded and the culturally oriented groups. It was also suggested that people who are strongly motivated toward advancement in social status (which includes economic advancement) will tend to enrol in evening colleges, and that this element is important in the vocationally minded student's outlook. This came out most clearly in the personal interviews:

> Most people want to get a degree. The fellows all say they have to have a degree in order to get a decent job. It doesn't matter so much what you know or how well you do your work. Just a degree means more. It helps you to advance socially too. You can associate with people who have the same ambitions and desires and you find them in the courses you take.

The culturally oriented group was not so large as was originally expected: 22% instead of the 30% expectation. It is noteworthy that this orientation is not exclusively a non-credit phenomenon. It was originally suggested that this group was more likely to be concerned about socialization with other students, a presupposition that turned out to be difficult of discovery. An extremely small percentage indicated that their plans included increasing social contacts. This low figure does not necessarily mean that this factor does not play an important part in an adult's decision to go to evening school, but it may mean that the method used here will not get out the response. This kind of motivation can be uncovered only after a long period of interviewing and then only indirectly. The 14% of the students who suggested more class discussion and more individual attention on the part of the instructor, the 2% who complained of no area in which students can be sociable, and the 30% who mentioned that they missed most the stimulation of other people show how important this aspect of the evening college picture is. Significantly more of this type of response came out in the personal interviewing than in the other two instruments.

> I've never taken a Round Table course—I'd like to do that if I had more time, I believe that kind of thinking is more productive. I used to be afraid of people and different ideas. I spent all my time reading but it was unsatisfying. I know now that the real thrill of reading is to be able to discuss a book with someone else. I get so much more out of it and I read more critically. We are bombarded with pat ideas through the newspapers, radio and TV that we forget how to think if we ever knew. I'm very anxious to get back to school for that reason. One of my best courses had a psychologist and his wife, a lawyer, a teacher, a grandmother housewife and the most brilliant student—an elderly Negro. Having a chance to hear them discuss the topic from their own background made it one of my most rewarding experiences.

It was also suggested at the outset that people who are not strongly identified with community institutions will tend to enrol in evening colleges. The only support for that presupposition in our research was inferred from the interviews we didn't obtain. The largest number of students from whom interviews were not obtained (60%) could not be located. The physical mobility of the evening school population was particularly impressed on the investigators. Much more investigation along these lines would be necessary before any firm generalizations could be made.

There were no significant differences noted in the results yielded from the telephone interview or the mail questionnaire. There was, however, a slightly larger return on the mail questionnaires, 6% difference. As we proceeded with the interviewing, the personal interview assumed more and more importance. The data yielded was much richer, more complex, and suggested some basis for the more superficial replies in the telephone interview and mail questionnaire. In any further study a much larger number of personal interviews should be included to form the crux of the study, the other two methods being used only to corroborate what was already discovered in the personal interviews. The most fruitful interviews lasted more than 45 minutes.

In regard to reasons for dropping out, the unavailability of courses was mentioned most frequently. "The courses I needed weren't offered this semester"; "They ran out of courses that interested me"; "They all lack educational appeal—I have no time any more"; "There was nothing I wanted to take." The student who gave this kind of response was usually registered elsewhere or indicated definitely he was not planning to return; he was usually a student who was culturally oriented. This complaint leads into the area of the kinds of courses that students want. The largest demand for courses was for credit courses at night that fitted into the student's sequence toward a degree or certificate. There seemed to be the general feeling that sequences were not too well explained and substitutions were made too haphazardly: "We need a well planned definite course of study for students where the substitutions possible in each department are not changed every year." The demand by subject matter was strongest in the social sciences, 8%; and weakest in engineering, 2% and natural sciences, 2%. The courses wanted in social sciences included politics, world affairs, human relations, popular anthropology, and psychology. Those students interested in a richer offering in this area listed courses within the traditional academic framework and outside it (specialized courses, workshops, discussions, seminars on problem areas in business or politics or education). A number of complaints came from students who were led to expect something different than what they got. This suggests a line of action mentioned by a member of the Center staff:

> . . . catalog entries should outline a course in considerable detail. Several [students interviewed] suggested that long course-descriptions (five, six, twelve pages instead of a few lines) would attract more people, simplify registration and result in fewer disgruntled students.

There was a definite expressed desire for a degree given exclusively in the evening: "I'd like courses that will give me an orthodox B.A. or B.S. even attending evening school alone."

The next highest category of reasons as a factor in dropping out, given by 23% of the students, was "reasons not connected with the university." This included responses indicating that the student had got married (female), had been recalled to service, had accomplished goals or was waiting to be called into service. These areas are ones that the evening college administrator can get more information on so that an accurate prediction can be made on enrolments. A large proportion of the 550 students from whom interviews could not be obtained were males who were drafted or recalled into service (30%, 165, over 50% of the male group represented in the non-surveyed population). This figure suggests that to get a more accurate picture of the enrolment and dropout situation in urban areas several things would have to be known about enrolment trends and evening college clienteles. Enrolment trends prepared on the basis of past enrolments could be projected over a period of ten years. This projection is admittedly more difficult to make than for such trends in higher education generally. Doing so, however would be necessary as a base for further interpretation by a population analyst, that is, some consideration of the present draft situation would be needed to predict what percentage of the male group reaching 18 are likely to enrol in evening colleges. The whole problem of clienteles for the evening college could come up for investigation then. How do the dropouts in evening school compare with the dropouts in day school? What age groups, socioeconomic groups, ethnic groups, religious groups consistently avail themselves of evening college services? Also any further systematic study of the evening college student would require more information than already exists on the student's registration card. . . . Some simple coding could be worked out and either typed or punched on a card that would indicate the student's formal educational background; socioeconomic position; the credit, non-credit breakdown; departmental breakdown (if there is one); and educational plans—to be determined either through an initial interview or questionnaire. To insure uniformity in any research to be conducted, a standard registration card could be used by all the evening colleges in one urban area so that an investigator seeking information on the student composition of the various institutions could work efficiently.

The next highest reason for dropping out, listed by 20%, was

"Job Cause." This category covered those students who had to work overtime or out of town so that they could not fit any courses into their schedule. Accompanying this kind of a response were a number of suggestions for alleviating the difficulty: "Shorten the courses as much as possible, I'm out of town too much to go for a whole semester"; "If the college could conduct certain subjects on Saturday mornings or afternoons it would be possible for me to return to school"; "They could give exams that means you wouldn't have to take all those courses."

Financial reasons was listed as the most important determining element in their decision to drop out by 17% of the students. "The cost of school with its tuition, fees, lab fees, book costs, etc. Few students can afford the 'luxury' of school"; "I lost my GI rights so I couldn't continue." Some students had concrete suggestions to offer about handling this difficulty, "It wouldn't hurt them to take a chance on their students. Why can't those who need it be helped through by a loan from the college? You could pay it back a few years after you finished. I know when I was in day school you could only get a loan if you had the ability to pay—which means you didn't need it anyhow. At night school I don't think they even do that."

The dissatisfaction expressed by the respondents included instruction (content, method), course offerings and college policy. The most criticism was leveled at instruction by 29% of the students: "Most of the courses are a one man show, they [the teachers] do all the talking"; "The instructors should teach in a manner that takes evening students into account—some of them expect 'Yale' answers. During the day you expect them [students] to work a little harder." Dissatisfaction with the level of the courses was also expressed by 14%. "I found the courses too elementary—the sort of thing you'd expect in a junior college and not in a four year one." The complaint of 5% was that the courses were too theoretical: "The stuff I got was impractical—wasn't relevant to what I was doing." Seven per cent expressed dissatisfaction with the amount of homework, and 4% mentioned the lack of organization in the courses, a complaint often coupled with complaints about methods of instruction. In response to the question asking what changes could be made that would make the courses more helpful, 22% of the students made specific suggestions. Ten per cent of the students suggested smaller classes and more class discussion: "Why not chop down the size of the classes so everyone would have a chance to talk? Instructors could permit a little more discussion." Six per cent suggested that the instructor devote more individual attention to each student, "There are too many students per teacher—we had no individual attention. Some teachers work both day and evening and in the evening just tell us how tired they are." Six per cent suggested less heavy homework assignments, "You can't work all day, go to school two nights a week and do all the homework they expect. You have to throw out any social life. I had 25 hours a week homework in one cost accounting course I had."

The 29% who made suggestions on better preparation by instructor made general statements about what could be done: "Lectures could be more interesting" as well as specific suggestions: "Someone should tell them [instructors] that we're not day school students—the policy of basing a student's grade on a final exam is the worst possible system"; "There could be more frequent short exams with not so much emphasis on details which are forgotten anyway."

A number of students expressed dissatisfactions about the administration, focussing particularly on policies (10%), facilities and services (24%). Of the students interviewed, 8% stated that dissatisfaction with the college was the most important element in their decision to drop out. Ten per cent indicated that specific factors relating to the administration's attitude had something to do with their dropping out: "Scheduling is too rigid—the expectations from the day and evening students are the same—they shouldn't be"; and specific actions "At registration the clerk acted as if one course wasn't enough." Registration and enrolment procedures were mentioned: "About the enrolment and registration set-up—I thought the time was inconvenient. It could be a little more flexible. You could even do it by mail"; "There was no personal interest evinced by the administration as to registration or pre-counseling regarding requirements."

Considering the dissatisfactions expressed, some type of in-service training for teachers of adults seems to be necessary. This program should deal very directly with the concern of those students who felt they needed better preparation. Throughout all the criticisms ran the feeling that evening students are different because most of them work during the day and are older than day students. That this fact should be recognized by faculty and administration is implied in most of the criticism: about sequences, the kinds of courses, the kinds of instruction, scheduling and degrees.

To handle adequately the dissatisfactions that emerged in the research, some form of systematic communication must be built up between the administration-faculty and the students. A questionnaire could be developed that would replace the present guesswork with systematic appraisal. There are several serious limitations inherent in any unsystematic appraisal of the student body: the observations may be unrepresentative; students are reluctant to be frankly critical (as we discovered in our interviewing); and observer's opinions and interests influence results. A well designed questionnaire could make it possible for the college to keep a more accurate record of what their students are thinking and feeling and how they are reacting to the total evening college experience. It would supply information on the kinds of students who come to evening college, thus providing data for promotional materials. The questionnaire could be given each semester or quarter or each year the results tabulated and then discussed by a student-faculty committee or one of students, faculty and administration. Thus communication between the student body and the college could be formalized, and some of the less systematic ways of assessing the student body so prevalent in the evening college situation could be eliminated. Such a practice would also help students in expressing their feelings and in thinking more critically about their aims and the kinds of experience they have in the evening college. The practice might help build an evening student culture—in the sociologist's use of the term—a culture which does not now exist.

This questionnaire would get at the components of satisfaction

—dissatisfaction and would include at least the following areas,

1. Feelings about treatment by instructors and other college officials.
2. Help in resolving personal, vocational and educational problems.
3. Attitudes about adequacy of the school's offering.
4. Participation in student activities.
5. Level of achievement—feeling of growth.
6. Work load.
7. Teaching methods.
8. Adequacy of equipment.
9. Most liked and most disliked feature of the college.
10. Attitudes toward value of studies.

APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Were you registered at ____________ for two years?
2. Are you taking courses anywhere else now?
   (If yes; Why did you change?)
3. Are there any particular reasons why you're not registered now?
4. Do you plan to register for evening courses any place next semester/quarter?
5. What were your plans originally when you started evening school?
6. How have your original plans changed since then?
7. Did the courses you took turn out to be what you thought they'd be when you enroled?
8. Are there any changes you could suggest about the way the courses are taught, like content or homework assignments, that would have made the courses more helpful to you?
9. What sort of courses could ____________ college give that would be of interest to people like yourself?
10. Are there any specific things about the college or its policies that you think would make students drop out?
11. How about the facilities and services of the college, did you feel that they were adequate?
12. Do you miss going to evening schools?
    (If yes; What do you miss most now that you're not going?)

APPENDIX 2

DEVELOPMENT OF CATEGORIES

The questions were designed roughly to get at reasons for dropping out relating to the self and to the "college" (policies, courses, content-method). Questions 2 through 6 attempt to get out personal factors that relate to dropping out and give us some information on the student, some of his characteristics. Questions 5 and 6 were developed to explore the impact of the evening school experience on the student's educational plans. Questions 7 to 12 concern the courses, methods and policies of the college. Question 12 tried to find out how the student feels now about not going to evening school.

In reading over the questionnaires, some attempt was made to see what appears to be going on and what associations can be noted —any relationships between the data. The interviews were then read and re-read to get perspectives on the total research. Then the responses were resolved down into several categories for each question. The respondents' explanations of their own behavior was catalogued. As we discovered later in the study, it was not possible to arrive at a satisfactory classification system simply by grouping items which seemed similar in content. We had to build up a concrete picture of the whole situation to which the answers referred and then locate the particular reports within this "structural scheme," all the while staying as close to the data as possible. This meant visualizing the concrete processes and activities implied by the dropout's responses and getting the preliminary scheme through introspection and an imaginative qualitative analysis of the data. This new picture was applied systematically to the data, a return was made to the scheme for refinement, a reapplication of the revised scheme to the data, and so on until the final categories were arrived at.

1. Were you registered at ____________ for two years?
To be certain that the students interviewed met with the stated requirements of the study this question was asked. A fairly large number of students in the early interviews indicated that they had not been attending the evening college involved for two years so rather than lose these interviews the respondents were classified as:
    A. More than two years
    B. Less than two years

2. Are you taking courses anywhere else now?
This item we felt could tell us something about the mobility of the evening college clientele. Does a student start at one university and circulate to all the colleges in the area or does he remain with the school he chose originally? If this circulation does occur, then can we talk about a homogenous evening school population; or if it does not, then can we make some statements about the composition of the evening school population of the several colleges studied? The respondents fell into two groups:
    A. Yes
    B. No

3. Are there any particular reasons why you're not registered now?
After reading and re-reading the interviews the responses were resolved into six categories:
    A. Cause connected with job—This category included such responses as working evenings, going into business for oneself, job has irregular hours, and courses don't apply to job requirements.
    B. Courses not available–nothing the student wanted to take, courses too late in the evening, courses do not apply to job requirements, and courses offered in inconvenient location. Response indicating that other activities and interests were taking up the respondents' time were also included under this category (the percentage was too small to be significant).

C. Financial reasons—included statements referring to: respondent getting married (male), having a baby, loss of GI benefits or increase in tuition. With these responses was usually included some statement about consequent inability to pay and college's lack of concern about ability to pay.

D. Health reasons—included statements indicating a need for rest, or recent operations.

E. Reason not connected with university—this category included all the responses that could not legitimately be included under the other categories: waiting to get called into service; respondent finished what he started out to do; getting married (female); student got the kind of job he wanted; recalled to service; undecided about goals; residence in another city; and employer is paying for courses at another school.

F. Dissatisfaction with the college—this category included all statements that dropping out was explicitly because of dissatisfaction with the university: courses, content-method, or policies.

In handling the data categories A, D, and E were treated as reasons relating to the self and B, C, and F were treated as reasons relating to the college.

4. Do you plan to register for evening courses anyplace next semester/quarter?

The answers on this item resolved themselves into five categories:

A. Undecided
B. No
C. Yes, at school originally involved
D. Yes, at another school
E. No, coming back later. This response was connected with any temporary situation mentioned in Item 3.)

In analyzing the data, categories B and D were lumped together to see what the results would be and contrasted with categories C and E, i.e., those who indicated that they weren't coming back to the university involved and those who indicated that they were.

5. What were your plans originally when you started evening school?

   The responses on this item fell into six distinct groupings:

   - A. Courses would help me in my work; degree in mind.
   - B. Courses would help me in my work; no degree in mind.
   - C. Preparation for an occupation or profession.
   - D. Cultural yearnings, self improvement; included all those interested in remedial general education.
   - E. To increase social contacts; included statements about interest in college because of activities, meeting new people; usually included statements about improving self and getting a cultural background. Closely connected with previous item.
   - F. To get a degree, get a better job.

   A, B, C, and F were lumped together as the "vocationally minded," and D and E were taken together as "culture yearners" in handling the data.

6. How have your original plans changed since then?

   The responses to this question fell into five different classifications:

   - A. No change.
   - B. Accomplished what I started out to do; included statements about finishing courses or degree, making friends, getting better job. Placing a response in this category depended on the answer to the previous item.
   - C. No, dropping out is an interruption; this response is connected with any temporary situation mentioned in Item 3.
   - D. Abandoned original plans; would take too long, dissatisfaction with any aspect of the college, waiting for service call, recalled to service, health reasons.

E. Yes, decided to work for a degree or switched fields. This classification includes all statements that articulate the impact of the evening college experience on the student's plans.

7. Did the courses you took turn out to be what you thought they'd be when you enroled?

   The responses were classified in five categories:

   A. Satisfied.
   B. Dissatisfied; level too low.
   C. Dissatisfied; too theoretical, any statement about lack of relationship to reason for taking the course, inappropriateness for non-degree or non-credit students.
   D. Dissatisfied; not organized, any statements referring to undue emphasis to some parts of the course, lack of definite homework assignments.
   E. Dissatisfied; too much homework.

8. Are there any changes you could suggest about the way the courses are taught, like content or homework assignments, that would have made the course more helpful to you?

   The responses were broken down into six categories:

   A. No
   B. More class discussion
   C. Smaller classes
   D. More individual attention
   E. Less heavy homework assignments
   F. Better preparation by instructor; included statements concerning better testing procedures, better presentation, more interesting lecturing, closer following of course content.

9. What sort of courses could ____________ college give that would be of interest to people like yourself?

   The responses fell into four general categories:

   A. Give more courses in different fields
      (1) natural sciences

(2) social sciences
(3) humanities
(4) commerce
(5) engineering
(6) more practical courses

B. Satisfied with present offerings and/or interested in them; included statements denying that the student had lost interest, stating that the courses were fine, and that the student would take anything required.

C. Suggestions for present offerings
(1) Fewer survey type courses
(2) Shorter courses; meeting less often, more Saturday courses, more related courses on the same evening so not necessary to go two nights.

D. No suggestions

10. Are there any specific things about the college or its policies that you think would make students drop out?
The categories developed were:

A. No
B. Dissatisfied; liberal political viewpoints of college.
C. Dissatisfied; high tuition
D. Dissatisfaction with administration; includes such items as cancellation of late hour classes, handling of registration, impolite registration clerks, too much emphasis on strict attendance, enrolment time inconvenient, dissatisfaction with dept. heads, classes once given later discontinued, administration refused to accept credit from other schools, lack of tests that enable student to get degree without taking courses
E. Dissatisfied with lower prestige of the evening school as compared with day; included statements about offering degree programs at night; evening students are dealt with as different kinds of students, etc.

11. How about the facilities and services of the college, did you feel that they were adequate?

The answers to this item were resolved into five classifications:

- A. Yes
- B. Dissatisfaction with physical facilities
    - (1) Poorly lit or overcrowded classrooms; includes complaints about inadequate washrooms, locker facilities, classroom equipment, lack of heat, dirty classrooms.
    - (2) Parking
    - (3) Elevators; includes statements about having to wait too long, their overcrowdedness, and lack of safety.
    - (4) No area in which students can be sociable; includes dissatisfaction with cafeteria setup and/or hours, not enough student activities.
- C. Lack of adequate counseling service
- D. Library services poor
- E. No.

12. Do you miss going to evening school? The following categories were derived:

- A. No
- B. Yes, miss stimulation of other people; includes statements about missing friendliness of students and teachers and missing being with people the student's own age.
- C. Miss the feeling of self improvement, getting ahead
- D. Miss organization and scheduling it gave spare time.

APPENDIX 3

BREAKDOWN BY INSTITUTION

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE BY EACH INSTITUTION ON QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

		Total	Northwestern 1	Northwestern 2	Marquette	Wisconsin	Chicago	Loyola	DePaul	Roosevelt
	Personal Interviews	84	80	80	50	100	100	100	60	100
	Telephone Interviews	37	53	51	44	51	--	--	40	53
	Mail Questionnaires	42	49	33	38	46	85	25	39	25
	Total	44	54	46	42	54	48	21	40	45
I.	Registered at ________ college for 2 years or more	79	100	93	71	91	64	76	80	49
	Registered at ________ college for less than 2 years	21	--	7	29	9	36	24	20	51
II.	Taking courses elsewhere	15	11	17	17	9	17	24	10	20
	Not taking courses elsewhere	85	89	83	83	91	83	76	90	80
III.	Reasons for dropping out:									
	Job Cause	20	31	15	7	28	19	5	20	20
	Health reasons	5	4	9	2	6	--	5	8	4
	Other reasons not connected with university	23	22	22	31	16	33	38	16	18
	Courses not available	27	24	37	26	33	25	33	13	27
	Financial reasons	17	15	6	17	6	15	14	35	31
	Dissatisfaction with the college	8	4	11	17	11	8	5	8	--
IV.	Undecided about returning to evening school	8	26	20	5	2	--	--	2	--
	Not returning	54	43	39	79	61	70	32	40	49
	Returning next semester/quarter	16	15	21	7	11	17	5	28	22
	Going elsewhere next semester/ quarter	11	7	11	7	11	8	29	5	18
	Coming back later	11	9	9	2	15	5	14	25	11
V.	Vacationally minded students	78	74	67	81	87	60	86	90	87
	Culturally oriented students	22	26	33	19	13	40	14	10	13
VI.	No change in original educational plans	50	45	39	33	7	61	38	50	40
	Accomplished objectives	10	7	6	22	--	15	24	5	2
	Dropping out is an interruption	15	26	20	14	77	10	14	15	30
	Abandoned original plans	15	9	24	17	9	8	14	15	26
	Decided to work for degree or switched fields	10	13	11	14	7	6	10	15	2
VII.	Satisfied with courses	70	59	68	61	61	84	80	74	74
	Dissatisfied—level too low	14	17	24	17	17	4	10	8	16
	Dissatisfied—too theoretical	5	5	--	5	9	4	--	8	2
	Dissatisfied—not organized	4	2	4	10	5	8	--	2	4
	Dissatisfied—too much homework	7	17	4	7	8	--	10	8	4

		Total	Northwestern 1	Northwestern 2	Marquette	Wisconsin	Chicago	Loyola	DePaul	Roosevelt
VIII.	No changes suggested about courses	49	31	48	50	45	71	61	35	56
	Suggest more class discussion	8	15	6	2	10	1	5	19	3
	More individual attention	8	15	12	2	5	1	5	12	6
	Less heavy homework assignment	6	11	5	7	4	--	--	10	6
	Better instructor preparation	29	28	29	39	36	27	29	24	29
IX.	Suggest more course offerings	34	28	39	32	43	31	20	22	42
	Satisfied with present offerings	17	18	22	15	19	17	24	8	16
	Suggestions for present offerings	3	4	2	3	3	--	9	4	4
	No suggestions	46	50	37	50	35	52	47	66	38
X.	Satisfied with college policies	86	78	89	81	85	92	95	90	87
	Dissatisfied—liberal political views	1	--	--	--	--	2	--	--	7
	High tuition	2	--	2	5	--	2	--	--	4
	Dissatisfaction with administration	10	22	7	14	15	4	--	8	2
	Dissatisfaction with lower prestige of evening college	1	--	2	--	--	--	5	2	--
XI.	Satisfied with college facilities and services	76	70	67	94	61	94	95	71	70
	Dissatisfaction with physical facilities	16	17	24	4	28	6	--	12	18
	Lack of adequate counseling service	3	2	--	2	2	--	5	10	7
	Library services poor	3	9	7	--	2	--	--	5	3
	General dissatisfaction	2	--	--	--	7	--	--	2	2
XII.	Don't miss evening school	43	33	33	62	42	46	57	30	49
	Miss stimulation of other people in evening school	30	32	40	12	24	42	28	38	22
	Miss feeling of getting ahead	21	24	20	21	30	8	10	27	24
	Miss organization and scheduling evening school gave my spare time	6	11	7	5	4	4	5	5	5

The Part-Time College Teacher

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CENTER *for the* **STUDY OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS**

FOREWORD

The Center presents this Research Report as a part of its interest in and support of new directions in faculty development. The report is based upon a more elaborate and extensive study conducted by Mr. D. B. Gowin and his colleagues at the University of Bridgeport as part of a series of studies on the improvement of teaching sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education.[1] The importance of this particular study to the adult education administrator with its focus on the part-time teacher is obvious. In addition to suggesting new ways of recruiting, selecting, and preparing part-time evening college teachers, Gowin urges us to regard them as bona fide members of the teaching profession as well as experts in subject matter outside the university, and to provide them with the perquisites and expect of them the duties that would be expected of the professional teacher within the university. Gowin also presents evidence that a program of careful preparation will in fact modify the ideas and attitudes which the prospective teacher holds about teaching.

The Center believes that this thoughtful and provocative statement not only presents a model for consideration of administrators and teachers, but raises some important questions about the image of the part-time teacher and who is responsible for it.

George H. Daigneault

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[1] D. B. Gowin, K. A. Chandler, G. L. Newsome, Jr., J. W. Nystrom and D. E. Payne, "An Experimental Study of Part-time College Faculty," an unpublished research report of a study supported by the University of Bridgeport and the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation, 1958.

PREFACE

The bias of the study director and his research associates needs to be made explicit at the outset. The associates in this research were Kenneth A. Chandler, George L. Newsome, Jr., J. W. Nystrom, and Donald E. Payne. In the first place, the work was considered to be of an experimental nature. The choice between experimental research and administrative implementation of a program consistently favored experimental research. The point of the study was not to plan and operate, without controls and experimental design and analysis, just anything which would work. Rather the point was to rely on theory as a guide to practice and a source of new dimensions for the task of studying college teaching. It is not expected that the solution was uncovered, but recent professional knowledge, particularly in philosophy and psychology, was drawn upon extensively in providing a solution.

Secondly, the basic question was not whether part-time college teachers will be employed; there was no doubt that they will be used in some fashion or other, perhaps more frequently than now. The basic question was how to improve instruction by selecting current theories in philosophy, psychology, sociology, and pedagogy and bringing them to bear upon current problems of college teaching.

Thirdly, while the study was focused upon the new part-time instructor, it need not be so limited. It is relevant to any attempt of college teachers to prepare for their teaching assignment. In the Faculty Workshop, many full-time faculty members found enlightenment and encouragement—and to some extent perplexity—in facing afresh the problems of preparation for teaching in college classes.

Finally, while a survey of current practices and policies concerning the part-time instructor was made, it was not from this description of the status quo that the design for the preparation program came. The turn was away from practices and toward theories to find guides—in spite of considerable doubt among some that education could be studied theoretically, or scientifically. There is evidence that few administrators or teachers theorize in their work: Coladarci and Getzels[1] suggest that administrators tend toward "factualism" and that teachers tend to "personalize"; neither group theorizes. To avoid the evils inherent in a mere perpetuation of the *status quo*, to avoid the evils of the "give-'em-a-shot-in-the-arm" approach, theory and professionalism were stressed. Theory was, in a real sense, put to the test in this study.

D.B.G.

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[1] A. P. Coladarci and J. W. Getzels, *The Use of Theory in School Administration* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1957), pp. 10-14.

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In addition many full-time and part-time faculty members at the University of Bridgeport and elsewhere contributed time and thought.

D.B.G.

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INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The part-time teacher has been overlooked. Few serious studies in higher education have concerned him. Yet urban universities and evening colleges depend heavily upon part-time college faculty members.

Part-time faculty members now carry to a significant degree the instructional responsibilities for both graduate and undergraduate students. (In universities recently sampled where the students number less than 4,000, approximately 39% of the total teaching staff is composed of part-time teachers.) With the expanding college population and the decreasing number of comprehensively prepared persons available for full-time college teaching positions, the use of part-time college faculty members is likely to increase. Since this extensive use of part-time teachers and the anticipated increase in their number is not greeted universally as desirable, better "quality control" will have to be exercised in the recruitment, selection, and preparation of these often peripheral members of the college community.

This study concerns the preparation for college teaching of an experimental group of new part-time college faculty members through a pre-service program involving educational theory (philosophy, psychology, sociology) and educational practices. In addition, the study includes surveys of current practices of urban universities in using the part-time faculty member, and the availability of professional persons qualified for college teaching on a part-time basis.

The full-time occupation or status of the potential part-time teacher is an important factor in planning a program of pre-service instruction for him. The person who teaches part-time is usually involved in some full-time occupation requiring professional demeanor. If potential new faculty members, considered to be professionals in their full-time occupations, were to be encouraged to approach the problems of teaching in a professional manner, professional knowledge and skills already possessed would have to be expanded in some way to help cope with the new, and professional, problems of college teaching. The aim of the pre-service preparation program was to stimulate mature, professional people to become acquainted with and to accept gladly the intellectual challenge and the emotional involvement of teaching. The following quotation defining a profession suggests some of the characteristics which the study was designed to encourage and develop.

> THE COLLEGE TEACHER'S JOB—By nature, a profession cannot be defined with precision: its limits are not fixed, its constituent processes not analyzable to the last detail. It is a calling which values talent more than technical proficiency, creative originality more than orthodoxy, responsibility to self more than subservience to the will of others. Its rewards derive from satisfaction in service rendered as much as from material return. The practice of a profession varies with each practitioner and the circumstances under which he works. A profession is never finally mastered: its foundations of knowledge keep growing, and new demands and responsibilities are constantly being added. So with college teaching.[1]

Many persons holding full-time appointments in colleges and universities actually teach only part-time. Indeed, some teachers who teach only one course a semester—ostensibly part-time—may actually be the only full-time teachers, since they give all of their teaching time and effort to one group of students and one subject field. It may be that they have a full-time teaching job, but receive only part-time pay.[2] This study is, however, primarily concerned with the person who does not hold a full-time academic appointment but who teaches one college class (or possibly two) part of each week during a semester. This definition is frequently used in urban universities. The question is how to recruit, prepare, and utilize him as a valued educational resource in a time of increasing need.

Patterns of Expectation

The following statements—composites of opinions taken from interviews with deans and directors of representative evening colleges—indicate different patterns of expectation for part-time teachers.

University A

> In my opinion, part-time faculty should only be used as a "stop-gap" measure, except in a very few fields of a highly specialized nature.

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[1] J. Justman and W. H. Mais, College Teaching: Its Practice and Its Potential (Harper & Brothers, 1956), p. 25.

[2] This comment is attributed to Professor Clyde M. Hill, Emeritus Professor, Yale University.

> Although the part-time faculty are paid less, usually, than full-time faculty, I am not so certain that they do not cost a university more in the long run. It has been my experience that the average part-time faculty person, when compared with the professional teacher, is not so skilled a teacher, not so devoted to his work (his principal interest obviously is in his full-time job), is not well informed regarding the workings of the university, is an easy-grader, cannot spare much, if any, time working with students outside of class, etc. This does not mean that I am not grateful to the part-time teachers that we have employed. My point is that one cannot expect the average part-time teacher to perform as well as the full-time teacher.

University B

> This evening college has been using part-time faculty successfully for some thirty years. Had we not been able to call upon the services of such a group, this institution could not have met its obligations to the community. In areas such as Industrial Management, the part-time man can do a better job than the full-time teacher. In many other areas the size of our day departments is not great enough to meet the demands during evening hours. For the past several years half of the evening faculty are drawn from the day divisions, half from off-campus. We have been able to work successfully with this ratio but believe we should not let it go beyond the fifty per cent mark.

University C

> We believe that the use of a reasonable number of part-time faculty, particularly in the fields of business, often makes possible the provision of more expert knowledge than does use of the full-time faculty. It also makes possible more flexibility in scheduling, since it frequently is a hardship for full-time faculty to teach late evenings and early mornings. By and large, the use of part-time faculty has worked very well for us. We believe that in a large urban area there are many individuals with excellent academic training, broad experience, and stimulating minds who can add greatly to the faculty resources. We feel that, in the impending "tidal wave" of students, much greater use of carefully selected instructors from outside the University will be an important means of preventing overwork of "regular" faculty and of keeping the doors open to the large numbers of students expected. The enrichment of the lives of the individuals so chosen is an important by-product also.

The patterns of expectation of university administrators obviously vary. Many administrators are reluctant to expect the same performance from a part-time teacher as from a full-time faculty member. Practical experience lends support to this reluctance because the part-timer has not, in point of fact, been as well prepared for teaching as the full-time teacher, although there have been some notable exceptions.

Implicit in the administrators' statements are two patterns of expectations. Pattern I, based on observation of current practices and the testimony of deans and directors, is not too different from what actually happens in many universities today.

First, when student enrollment bulges, a dean, harassed and pressed to cover large classes, picks up the telephone and calls for a part-time instructor. The instructor is selected by these criteria: can he teach at a specified time (usually evening or odd, 6:15, hour) for a small amount of money? He is "prepared" for teaching by a talk with the dean, by an introduction to a full-time faculty person, by an invitation to the one dinner held during the semester, and by a handbook which may or may not be given him. He is told where the class meets, where his mail box is, and when he will receive his check. The grade book contains detailed instructions about how often to give a test, how to keep attendance, and how to record grades. He is not expected: to attend faculty meetings; to advise students; to be generally available to the college community; to do academic research either for his teaching or for publishing; or, necessarily, to be a master of the field in which he teaches. He probably holds a Master's degree.

This approach seems to be non-professional, requiring little grasp of theoretical and philosophical aims of education, little grounding in the basic issues of higher education, little respect for that function of a university which is to create new horizons for students and new additions to knowledge. Practical experience is frequently thought of as a substitute for professional competence.

Finally, in the absence of much supervision or evaluation, the success of this part-timer is judged by the number of complaints (even two or three would be a serious indictment) received by deans from students. Mediocrity is not only tolerated, but positively encouraged under such conditions.

Pattern II presents a view of what is possible as a composite of some of the best administrative policies. The dean does not wait for enrollment to bulge; he reads enrollment statistics and decides that he is going to need more qualified teachers. He tries systematically to discover abundant sources of potential teachers.

The next step is not merely an induction-orientation-indoctrination program; it is an educational program. At this point, theory comes in. The distinction between the brief orientation and the fullblown educational program is that the latter stresses theory, the former, technique. The dean may run a professional seminar, or he may turn it over to educational experts who teach theory as a part of their own academic teaching load.

The part-timer is expected to be responsible, creative, independent, professional, and stimulating not only to students but to other faculty members. He is a master of his field, and provides a service not otherwise available to students. Being professionally competent, he is brought into faculty counsels for discussion, planning, and creation of curricula. The chief inducement is an opportunity to take on more—not less—responsibility; this is in keeping with his professional status. He may be encouraged to do academic research and to publish. He is not hired because he is cheaper; he is as expensive and potentially as valuable as the full-time person who might also teach the same course.

The standards against which he is judged are professional standards. Although he is expected to be effective in relation to students, a student popularity poll is not the sole criterion of his worth to the academic community. The university gives a great deal to this man—recognizes him as a professional and contributes to his professional growth. On the other hand, high professional competence is expected of him.

In the first pattern, the part-timer faces the problem of dual loyalties, and in the eyes of the university his first loyalty is to his full-time job. In the second pattern, the profession of teaching augments the profession the person engages in outside the university; instead of a conflict of interests, as in the first pattern, there is a wider sharing of interests and an intensification of effort. The relation between the administrator and the part-timer is not one of simple and selfish barter, as in the first pattern, in which each party seeks to exploit the situation for all it is worth. Rather, the mutual dedication to common loyalties approaches public service in the highest sense.

Current Practices

Documentation for the existence of these two patterns of expectation was obtained from questionnaires[3] sent to thirty-nine urban universities.

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[3] Gowin, et al., "An Experimental Study of Part-time College Faculty," pp. 5-27.

Thirty-six returned fully completed forms. The questionnaire data suggested a division between large and small universities at about the point of a student enrollment of 4,000. There was little significant difference between the large and the small universities in the ratio of part-time to full-time faculty.

The universities had widely varying standards for appointment. Moreover, the dominant occupations of each community were likely to foster an uneven distribution of specialized talent available for part-time teaching. The different standards for selection held by the university and the relative richness of the surrounding communities combined to make the task of selection different in each university.

The most fruitful sources of part-timers were found to be: first, local business and industry; next, the professional colleagues of the full-time faculty members; and third, graduate students. The responsibility for locating and employing part-time faculty was found to lie most often with department chairmen, and next with the dean.

The quality of the part-time faculty as evidenced by degrees held revealed several things. The large universities employed a significantly higher percentage of Ph.D.'s—both full- and part-time—than did the small universities. The first criterion for employment of part-time faculty members in large urban universities was found to be "professional competence" with "teaching ability" as the second criterion. These two criteria were found to be vastly more important than degrees held, personal qualities, or practical experience. Smaller universities indicated the same criteria, but with more emphasis upon degrees held.

The emphasis placed upon professional competence by urban universities in employing part-time faculty members is of particular significance for formulating policies of recruitment, preparation, and utilization of part-time college teachers. The findings suggest a need for seeking out sources of professional talent, developing programs stressing professional preparation for college teaching (as opposed to superficial orientation and stress on practical techniques of college teaching), and formulating policies for utilizing part-timers as professionals (as opposed to stop-gap utilization).

The pay (in 1958) for part-time college teaching ranged from $120 to $180 per credit hour in both large and small universities. The most widely used criteria for determining the pay of the part-time teacher were degrees held, teaching experience, and quality of teaching. Inducements given in the form of privileges were often those that cost the university nothing (such as free use of the library, publicity, and bookstore discounts). Inducements such as group insurance plans and medical-dental facilities were less common, though practiced in some cases.

The titles and responsibilities of part-time faculty members varied, but the most widely used title was "Lecturer" and the most common responsibilities other than teaching were departmental meetings and advising students about programs. These latter two responsibilities, however, were not frequently expected of the part-timers. Although the chief criterion for employment was professional competence, the policies set up for utilizing part-timers suggest they were treated as non-professional employees.

There seems to be little evidence that the part-time teacher was encouraged to utilize his professional competence in curriculum planning or other professional activities, that he was taken into the faculty as a professional equal, or that he was treated by the university administration as a valuable professional asset.

The disadvantages in the utilization of part-time faculty members stated by college administrators point up further the generalization that universities fail to use part-timers to best advantage. The most outstanding disadvantage of part-time college teachers as judged by the administrative officials was "unavailability to students." The second major disadvantage was "lack of institutional orientation," followed by "unavailability to general college community."

Very little pre-service preparation of the part-time faculty member was reported. Only eighteen out of the thirty-six universities reported any kind of program. The typical pattern of these eighteen was a conference with the department head, or dean, or director of the evening division concerning college routines and student relations. Four universities indicated discussing theories of learning; nine mentioned philosophy of education; eight noted something on the adult learner; ten mentioned methods of teaching. Hence, it may be concluded that pre-service preparation, if given at all, is devoted primarily to institutional orientation, to techniques and methods of teaching. Very infrequently is anything given concerning the fundamental theories of learning or philosophies of education.

Even fewer universities report any kind of in-service program for the part-time faculty member. Only twelve out of the thirty-six reported that some kind of in-service program was attempted. The pattern of the in-service program follows that of the pre-service program described above. The same conclusion may be drawn: very little is currently being done, and what is being done accentuates the practical.

Supervision of the part-timer is also infrequent. While twenty of the thirty-six universities reported some observation of the classroom teaching of the part-timer, the accompanying comments indicated that such observation was rare. The comments about observation were "when requested or needed," "at the discretion of the department head," "varies," "irregular." Supervision typically involves an individual conference with the dean or the department head.

Evaluation of the part-time faculty member takes two forms. Student evaluation is sometimes sought, and evaluation by full-time faculty members is sometimes given. Twenty-five of the thirty-six universities indicated that student evaluation was obtained by "casual comments to dean or other faculty member." Seven universities indicated that systematic appraisal by student reaction was taken, but that it occurred infrequently —"as needed," "occasionally every two years," "at discretion of instructor," "no set pattern." The full-time faculty members do evaluate to some extent the work of the part-timer. Twenty-four universities reported departmental analysis of grading practices; twenty-three reported inspection of examinations; twenty-one reported demanding approval of course objectives; thirteen reported comparisons of student achievement through standardized tests.

Although there is a geographical bias in this sample, favoring the northern and eastern parts of the United States, opinions of readers of the original research report suggest that it does not seem to be very wide of the mark in other areas.

LOCATING PART-TIME TEACHERS: TWO APPROACHES

Colleges need to take the initiative in seeking out qualified part-timers for their faculties. Academic channels customary for finding full-time faculty members are not so useful in leading to the professional who will be appropriate for part-time teaching.

Where can the non-teaching professional be located? One answer for universities granting professional degrees can be found in alumni files. Information about the full-time positions of alumni can provide helpful categories of occupations. Some professionals are working for industrial research laboratories; some for governmental agencies, including the Armed Forces; some are working for themselves in private consulting firms; and some work for themselves as artists, historians, and critics.

Each college must, to some extent, devise its own procedures. Two surveys are reported here of the steps one college took. These surveys are offered as illustrating, and not as exhausting, possible approaches. One survey was of a local community, seeking out names from various professional organizations. The other survey was of industrial research laboratory personnel on the East Coast. The basic questions are the same. Are these people qualified to teach in college? Are they interested? Are they willing to learn something about the particular college and about the problems of teaching? Are full-timers willing to select them as qualified members of the faculty, and to accept them as professional colleagues?

A Community Survey of Potential Part-Time Faculty

The local community surrounding a college is an obvious first place to look for part-time teachers. To test this resource and the method of seeking out professionals, the communities of Bridgeport and Fairfield, Connecticut, were surveyed in February of 1958. The point was to uncover new sources of teachers, for to rob the high schools or borrow from other colleges would be no real gain.

Some pre-selection was made of the groups to be canvassed. The groups chosen were ones in which it seemed reasonable to expect to find both quality (insofar as qualifications for teaching are concerned) and interest. Consequently the groups approached were college graduates—in other words people who might reasonably be expected to have some continuing interest in college and the problems of college education.

Procedure

With the co-operation of several different organizations (the American Association of University Women, the Fairfield Medical Association, the Greater Bridgeport Personnel Association, Smith College Alumni, the Society for the Advancement of Management, Yale University Alumni, and Phi Beta Kappa), a list of potential part-time teachers was compiled. Each of these persons was then contacted by mail. Through this procedure a total of 1,445 letters was sent.

The letter described briefly the purpose of the program and pointed out that only information was being sought at this stage. The subjects were given an opportunity to respond by means of postal cards to indicate either (a) that they were not interested in the program, (b) that they were interested in the program and would be willing to (1) complete the personal data form and (2) undertake a pre-service preparation program. The personal data form itself was a fairly long and detailed questionnaire requesting information regarding—in addition to other things—age, sex, highest degree earned, field in which the subject felt qualified to teach, experience in teaching, professional experience, and professional certification.

Results

The over-all return on the investment in letters is reported in Table 1.

As the table indicates, of the groups contacted the average number who expressed interest in part-time teaching generally hovered close to the over-all thirteen per cent. Of those who confessed to an interest in part-time teaching, approximately two-thirds also were interested in a preparation program. Of every six persons contacted, at least one expressed interest in the program to the extent of completing and returning the personal data form.

Having determined that there was, in fact, interest in part-time teaching among the selected sample, the next question was: What sort of people are these who profess an interest in teaching?

Table 2 presents a list of the major fields represented among the re-

TABLE 1

INTEREST IN PART-TIME TEACHING SHOWN BY PERSONS IN LOCAL COMMUNITY

	Number on List	Number of Post Cards Returned	% of Post Cards Returned	Questions on Post Cards*	% of Interest Shown	Number Interested in Preparation Program	% of Interest Shown	Number of Data Forms Returned	% of Data Forms Returned
AAUW-College Club	303	108	35.6	49	16.1	29	9.6	58	19.1
Ffld. Med.	100	23	23.0	10	10.0	5	5.0	14	14.0
G.B.P.A.	89	29	32.6	14	15.7	13	14.6	12	13.5
Smith	253	82	32.4	22	8.7	21	8.3	36	14.2
S.A.M.	271	92	33.9	31	11.4	24	8.9	28	10.3
Yale	200	48	24.0	22	11.0	10	5.0	33	16.5
Misc.	14	8	57.1	7	50.0	6	42.9	9	64.3
Phi Beta Kappa	215	79	36.7	28	13.0	19	8.78	38	17.7
Totals	1445	469	32.45	183	12.66	127	8.78	228	15.77

Note: Managers of research groups of local industries were contacted by letter and, at their request, a total of 51 Personal Data Forms were mailed of which forty-nine were returned indicating great interest in the possibilities of part-time teaching.

*Interest shown in part-time teaching.

spondents who indicated interest in part-time teaching.

The incidence of part-time teachers for the Arts College tends to be somewhat higher than for any of the others. This may suggest that community recruiting will be most productive if teachers for the Arts College are sought.

Table 2 also presents the age and sex data on our respondents.

TABLE 2
AGE, SEX, AND INTEREST IN PART-TIME COLLEGE TEACHING

College	Total	Age				Sex	
		25-29	30-39	40-49	50+	Male	Female
Arts and Science	130	20	42	36	32	56	74
Junior College	12	1	9	2	0	1	11
Education	17	2	7	6	2	4	13
Engineering	44	6	28	8	2	44	0
Business Administration	55	6	24	14	11	46	9
Nursing	2	1	0	0	1	0	2
More than one college	17	2	5	3	7	13	4
Total	277	38	115	69	55	164	113
Per Cent	100.0	13.7	41.5	24.9	19.8	59.2	40.8

The sample of respondents was largely composed of fairly young people. Approximately eighty per cent of all our respondents were under the age of fifty and the majority (fifty-five per cent) was under the age of forty. The preponderence of males in business administration and engineering and the preponderence of females in the Junior College and Education College areas is to be expected.

Table 3 presents the highest earned degree found in this sample.

The sampling, of course, was so constructed that the respondents would inevitably show a high percentage of degree-holding people. In addition, the table reveals that, of the 228 respondents, 121 hold advanced degrees.

TABLE 3

HIGHEST DEGREE HELD
(N = 228)

College	Ph.D.	M.D.	M.A. or M.S.	B.A. or B.S.	No Degree	LL.B.
Arts and Science	14	15	42	58	0	1
Junior College	0	0	5	5	2	0
Education	1	0	9	7	0	0
Engineering	3	0	11	27	3	
Business Administration	1	0	13	25	3	13
Nursing	0	0	1	1	0	0
More than one college	2	1	3	7	0	4

Table 4 is perhaps even more relevant to the question of qualifications. This table presents the teaching and professional experience of the respondents. It reveals that a sizable number of the respondents have either professional or teaching experience, or both. Of the total sample, sixty-five have had college teaching experience and fifty-six are teaching at present.

Table 5 presents further information regarding the professional qualifications of our respondents. Professional certification is viewed as evidence of professional competence. Taking this point of view, the table reveals that many respondents have, in fact, attained a reasonable level of professional competence. Of the total group forty-four hold teaching certificates.

The final test of the quality of the respondents is presented in Table 6. Listed in this table are the number of respondents in which deans of the respective colleges expressed interest. In a very real sense this is a critical test of the qualifications of the respondents and on this test they fare very well indeed. Roughly three out of every five of the respondents looked good enough to the deans (of colleges in which they would be qualified to teach) to be interviewed should an opening occur. The lowest percentage of interest was fifty per cent. In other cases the percentages

TABLE 4
EXPERIENCE: TEACHING AND PROFESSIONAL

College	Years of Professional Experience			Years of Teaching Experience			Teaching		
	1-3	4-10	10	1-3	4-10	10	College	Other	Now
Arts and Science	30	41	37	42	25	24	36	54	28
Business Administration	3	22	29	11	6	3	5	17	4
Engineering	5	13	26	11	12	1	16	13	6
Education	7	1	1	4	4	9	3	12	11
More than one college	2	3	10	5	2	1	2	7	1
Junior College	1	5	2	2	4	3	2	8	6
Nursing	2	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0

TABLE 5
CERTIFICATES HELD

College	Law	Medicine	Teaching	Other
Arts and Science	1	11	26	10
Junior College	0	0	4	1
Education	0	0	11	1
Engineering	0	0	0	10
Business Administration	9	0	0	7
Nursing	0	0	0	2
More than one college	4	0	3	4

run as high as eighty-four per cent, for the Junior College, and seventy-six per cent, for the College of Engineering.

These percentages indicate that the part-timers finally discovered were of good quality. That these people were not otherwise known as potential teachers suggests that a community survey, if systematically and carefully made, will produce a good yield. It is not to be concluded, however, that this particular survey is the only or best way to search for

TABLE 6

APPLICANTS DEEMED BY DEANS AS WORTHY OF AN INTERVIEW

College	Number Sent to Dean	Number Deemed "Worthy"	Per Cent
Arts and Science	140	70	50.0
Business Administration	56	31	55.4
Engineering	46	35	76.1
Education	20	13	65.0
Junior College	13	11	84.6
Nursing	2	0	00.0
Total	277	160	57.8

qualified part-time teachers. Further explorations will doubtless improve on this one. The next section indicates a different approach.

Industrial Research Personnel as Potential Part-Time Faculty

Surveys have shown that the great majority of academically trained specialists employed in non-academic institutions are found in industrial research and development laboratories.[1] The concentration of this kind of personnel in these rapidly growing segments of American industry is also increasing at an accelerated rate. There are currently some twenty-three per cent of recent Ph.D. mathematicians in non-academic posts, and the trend suggests that soon more than thirty per cent will be in industrial and government work.[2] Of the recent chemistry Ph.D.'s, some three-fourths are seeking industrial careers; of the physics graduates, about three-fifths are turning to industrial employment.[3] Industrial research and development laboratories are therefore fertile sources of potential teaching talent.

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1. D. C. Dearborn, *et al*., *Spending for Industrial Research*, 1951-52, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1953, p. 72.

2. M. Rees, "Mathematicians in the Market Place," *The American Mathematical Monthly*, 65:332-343, May, 1958.

3. *Ibid*.

However, certain questions arise. Since American business and industry are organized for profit making, would it be to the general (and to the specific) advantage of the business firm to release certain of its personnel from their regular duties to engage in part-time teaching? And further, if the firm is willing to release the employee, does the individual himself feel that it would be to his personal and professional advantage to engage in part-time teaching?

In the attempt to ascertain whether professional employees of a research laboratory are actually qualified and interested in part-time college teaching, four basic questions were formulated. These questions were:

(1) Are industrial research personnel qualified by training and experience for college teaching?

(2) Are industrial research personnel actively interested in part-time teaching?

(3) Is there an essential conflict of interest between industrial research and college teaching, so far as the individual researcher is concerned?

(4) Will part-time teaching actually help the full-time researcher in much the same way as part-time research helps the full-time teacher?

With these basic questions in mind, a brief questionnaire was devised and distributed to 200 employees of a major industrial research laboratory.

Qualifications of Research Personnel

Are industrial research personnel qualified by training and experience for college teaching? Evidence relevant to this question involves three kinds of qualifications: (1) academic degrees held, (2) work experience, and (3) teaching experience.

In this sample, the physical scientists more often hold the Ph.D. degree than members of the other academic fields represented. None of the other differences is statistically significant. Since this sample included at the outset only M.A. and Ph.D. personnel, and since many universities consider the M.A. the minimum academic requirement and the Ph.D. the desirable academic attainment, we may conclude that this sample of research personnel is, to this extent, qualified for college teaching.

The work and teaching experience data reveal that the members of the sample are relatively young. Almost the entire sample has been working less than ten years and teaching less than five years. Of the Master's degree holders, sixteen per cent have held full-time faculty appointments, and thirty-seven per cent have held full-time or part-time (or both) college teaching posts. The returns from the Ph.D.'s show that thirty per cent have held full-time teaching assignments, and forty-five per cent have held part-time or full-time (or both) teaching assignments. More than ten per cent of each group are presently teaching either in connection with their work assignment or in some academic program.

Interest in Part-Time College Teaching

To many a college administrator the desire to teach is the necessary condition for teaching. Does the prospective faculty member indicate a readiness or willingness to learn to teach? Will he grow into the task?

First, we asked a direct question concerning interest in teaching; second, we asked a direct question concerning willingness to learn to teach. The replies given to these questions constitute quantitative data. Third, we present as qualitative evidence the comments freely given by individuals concerning the other advantages part-time teaching might bring to their own work.

The replies show an overwhelming interest in part-time teaching. Of the 151 research personnel replying, 128 replied "Yes" to the question: "Would you be interested in part-time teaching on released time?" This reply is significantly different from chance beyond the .001 level of confidence. The definition of released time intended here is that the industrial concern will release the researcher from his full-time, eight-hour daily stint for an hour or two in order that the researcher might teach at a time convenient to a university.

It is likely that many of those replying "Yes" are familiar with the requirements and rewards of teaching. Over one-third have had teaching experience, as shown in the previous section. Of the 128 affirmative responses, thirty-four per cent have had one to five years teaching experience; twenty-five per cent have held full-time faculty appointments; and forty-six per cent have had either full-time or part-time (or both) teaching jobs. In addition, thirteen per cent are presently teaching either in connection with their work assignment or in some academic program.

Willingness to learn to teach is abundantly present in this sample of research personnel. Of the 128 indicating an interest in teaching, sixty-five per cent replied that they would be interested in a preparation-for-teaching seminar. This result is significant beyond chance at the .02 level of confidence.

Conflict of Interest

Is there an essential conflict of interest between industrial research and college teaching as far as the individual researcher is concerned? In attempting to answer this question, we are not looking at it from the point of view of those who frame company policy on such matters. We are attempting first to get the research workers' viewpoint. We asked a direct question concerning disadvantages to the individual's work of part-time teaching.

The most frequently marked disadvantage was that part-time teaching interferes with normal work assignment. This response points to a need for further examination before a part-time teaching policy could become operative. Some speculation may be appropriate here.

Those projects which require close deadlines and work quotas would obviously be adversely affected by a released time policy. Perhaps research work which is not so tightly locked in time would positively benefit. In answer to the question, "What would be the best time arrangement for you and your work?," well over one-half indicate a timing arrangement whose net effect would be to integrate the work experience with the teaching requirement. This arrangement might be one solution to the problem of interference with normal work assignment.

TABLE 7

RELEASED TIME FOR PART-TIME TEACHING
(N = 151)

Released for a little time each day	20
Released for a certain portion each week	60
Released for full academic quarter or semester	31
Released for a full academic year	17
Released for full summers only	4
Released for in-between projects	1
No response	18

Another possible solution to the conflict of interest problem may be more basic than that of mere clock hours. Will part-time teaching actually help the full-time researcher in much the same way as part-time research helps the full-time college teacher?

This question was stimulated by a Carnegie Foundation report.[4] This report examined the value of part-time research to the full-time teacher, and although not demonstrated by scientific evidence, the conclusion is definitely positive. The report forcefully brings home the point that there is a salutary effect on the teaching performance of college faculty members when the individual undertakes creative research in the field he is teaching.

To strike a proper balance between research and teaching is, of course, difficult. Professors doing research in universities often express the desire to be shed of students, in order to devote themselves fully and completely to research. Yet, as may be seen in the testimony to follow, full-time researchers have a yearning for students, for doing a modicum of teaching. Part-time teaching, many feel, would strengthen research abilities.

A Ph.D. physicist with three years of work experience and three years of college teaching:

> In recently preparing a lecture covering a paper on a certain theory in physics, I was unable to understand a certain point sufficiently well to explain it to others. I found that this was actually due to a shortcoming in the theory. I have now refined this point and plan to publish a paper on it.

An applied mathematician with eight years of work experience and one year of college teaching:

> At least two technical reports originated with ideas arising during teaching or preparation for it: these will lead to a patent, and a published paper.

An industrial engineer with six years of work experience and three years of part-time college teaching experience:

> Academic exposure helps formulate and crystallize research problems. This, plus enrichment of problem-solving techniques, shortens problem-solving time.

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[4] H. Lowry and W. Taeusch, Research—Creative Activity and Teaching, A Report on a Five-Year Experiment To Improve Undergraduate Teaching, Bulletin Thirty-Three, New York, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1953.

The sample for this study was taken from only one industrial research laboratory. For any far-reaching conclusions to be drawn, it would be necessary to survey other laboratories in the electronics industry as well as laboratories of other industries. On the basis of the results reported, it can be stated that industrial research personnel with advanced degrees and some work experience in their subject fields are interested and apparently well motivated for part-time college teaching. Although there may be some interference with normal work assignments, part-time teaching and industrial research assignments may have much in common.

The Viewpoint of Industrial Research Laboratories

Are the managements of industrial laboratories interested in releasing certain of their employees for part-time teaching? To answer this question, a sample of American industrial research laboratories was surveyed. This survey was undertaken with the following questions in mind:

—Are there company policies in effect which release employees for part-time teaching assignments?

—What are the advantages and disadvantages of part-time teaching so far as the laboratory management is concerned?

—What are the problems that must be resolved before industrial research personnel can be released for part-time college teaching on a national scale?

The signal outcome of the survey is a demonstration of the fact that among research laboratory management there is no explicit policy, uniformly administered. However, since most of the respondents represented small companies, there is probably not a great need for policy statements, especially since forty per cent of the sample do release employees for some part-time teaching on an individual basis. These are, as a rule, small urban laboratories.

The desirability of this practice is attested to by one-third of the companies which reported that the practice resulted in a major advantage to the company. Over half reported small or moderate advantages. In balance, one-third of the companies reported a major disadvantage and this drawback was, unanimously, that released time programs interfered with the normal work assignments of the laboratory employees.

Summary and Conclusions: Status and Availability of Part-Time Teaching Personnel

Among urban universities, the practice of employing part-time teachers is widespread. Seventy per cent of the large universities and ninety per cent of the small universities employ some part-time faculty members. However, there is also wide variability among both large and small universities in the ways in which part-time faculty members are used. In general, part-time faculty members appear to be selected as "second best" (at least insofar as academic degree is concerned). This selection, because of inadequate recruitment policies, would seem to be a matter of choice, not necessity. It should also be noted that large universities use part-time personnel more extensively and more professionally than small universities.

It seems evident from the data that a selective dragnet can uncover potential part-time teachers particularly in the liberal arts area. By area, experience, and professional competence, those interested in part-time teaching tend, also, to be qualified for part-time teaching. Deans responsible for hiring part-time people expressed interest in the high quality of the part-time people turned up from the community resources. It would seem that, for the college interested in securing part-time teaching personnel, a large pool of talent awaits in the community.

Among the research personnel sampled, interest in teaching ran high and was coupled with high qualifications. Research administrators, though agreeing in principle with the value of part-time teaching and closer cooperation with universities, seemed to expect the university to take the initiative.

The research administrator may not "find" a solution to the problem of work interference until and unless he has evidence of real effort on the part of the university. He seems to suspect the university administrator of dragging his heels. The university wants teachers, but will not pay professional salaries—nor does the university suggest offering its professors as consultants to industry on a comparable released time basis, for instance. The research administrator's attitude is that the university must be willing to encourage participation.

What then, of the university administrator? The university administrator sees the part-time teacher as a specialist or as a stop-gap. He has not clearly decided to view the part-time teacher as a professional person and, hence, to set his standards high.

The university administrator sees more disadvantages than advantages in the use of the part-time person. For one thing, the part-time teacher is unavailable to students. It is interesting that this complaint is voiced twice as often by the small university administrator as by the large university administrator—particularly since the large universities tend to use the part-time teacher to advise students, whereas the small universities do not! The unavailability may reside more in the disinclination of the small university administrator than in the disability of the part-time teacher. Furthermore, the small university especially (though to some extent the large university as well) sees the part-time teacher as lacking in institutional orientation and as not being well-informed about the university—both of which would seem to be responsibilities of the university. Similarly, the unavailability of the part-time teacher to the general college community is cited. Yet, the part-time teacher is rarely invited to faculty meetings and is unrepresented on faculty groups and committees.

In fact, the privileges that are accorded the part-time faculty member generally turn out to be relatively trivial ones. The use of the university library, for instance, would be a pale inducement to any professional person who would probably have access to the library through other channels anyway. It is perhaps also significant that some proportion of the universities deny the part-time professor the everyday privilege of free books from publishers . . . and even do not provide parking privileges.

A more serious consideration may be the attitude of the university administrator toward the role of the part-time teacher. Professional personnel, highly trained in their field and respected among their colleagues, do not readily fit into a sub-professional role. Perhaps, however, these criticisms stem from the stereotype of the part-time teacher as a less skilled "easy grader"—a stereotype which proved under inspection (of the Los Angeles University study) to be largely false.

The conclusions seem evident. The need for professionally trained faculty will inevitably increase. Qualified part-time personnel are available—and interested. Clearly, the burden of action is upon the university.

The decision cannot be made for the university, but the alternatives seem clear: either continued perpetuation of the stereotypes of the part-time teacher as a second-best academic citizen, or a new approach, planned professionally, stressing professionalism.

AN EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM IN RECRUITING AND PREPARING PART TIME TEACHERS

Recruiting the Faculty Interns

Professional treatment of the new part-timer can be planned by experienced full-time faculty members. While they may not agree on all educational issues, they can come to working agreements about the kind of person desirable as a professional colleague. They want, simply enough, someone like themselves who can carry a fair part of the load. They want someone who is stimulating and congenial, independent and interested. They want someone with the freedom and responsibility of the professional person.

To find and prepare a person of this sort requires work on the part of the full-time faculty. A record follows of the experiences of one faculty engaged in this endeavor.

The experimental group of Faculty Interns was recruited in August and September, 1957. On August 18 a local newspaper story noted that twenty volunteers were sought by the University of Bridgeport to participate in a Ford Foundation research project on the use of part-time college teachers. This story was reprinted in another newspaper a week later. Also, all full-time and part-time faculty and members of the Board of Associates and of the Board of Trustees of the University of Bridgeport were sent a letter inviting them to submit names of persons they thought qualified for the experimental program. From these efforts, 162 applications were received.[1]

Although only fourteen names were submitted by the University faculty, six of these were actually selected for participation. One of the most productive sources of potential part-time faculty is the group of people already in some way associated with a university. Eleven of the nineteen Interns were found in this way and some 55 per cent of the total names submitted came from these sources.

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[1] The community survey conducted in February, 1958, and discussed on pp. 14ff. revealed additional techniques for recruiting part-time teachers. However, a program which is announced as being "experimental" appears to have unusual drawing power. A number of Interns stated directly that they would not have been interested in part-time teaching had it not been for the experimental program.

To qualify for initial consideration for the experimental study, each person must have had neither formal preparation for teaching nor teaching experience. He was required, however, to satisfy one or more of the following conditions:

1. have obtained a master's or other advanced degree,
2. have been licensed or certified by a recognized authority to practice in his chosen field,
3. have had enough experience in a particular field to insure competence in presenting its subject matter at the college level.

Of course, it was expected that the person would have a pleasing personality and be capable of working with college students.

Three separate steps were involved in the selection of each Intern: (1) screening of applications, (2) interviewing candidates, and (3) voting by Faculty Advisory Council for acceptance of candidates.

The screening of each of the 162 applicants eliminated all those who failed to meet the minimum standards. As a result of this initial screening, the total number of candidates was reduced to 61 who were invited for individual interviews.

Each candidate was interviewed by a team selected from among the full-time faculty of the University. Each team was composed of one member from the candidate's own subject matter area and two members from other departments of the University. A Reaction Form was used requiring each interviewer to rate the candidate on six broad dimensions: personality traits, physical qualities, general professional skills, special professional knowledge, motivation and attitudes, and willingness to undertake the experimental program. In addition, space was provided for specific comments on any of these areas and for any general comments the interviewer might wish to make. Finally, the interviewer was requested to give a specific recommendation regarding the candidate's suitability.

On the final composite list, submitted to the Faculty Advisory Council, the Intern was classified by college and by specific course which he would be expected to teach. Included after the candidate's name was a recommendation given by each member of the interviewing team, as well as any remarks the interviewers cared to make. Candidates for each college were presented to the Faculty Advisory Council for selection by the Dean of the college who described briefly the candidates' qualifications.

A control group was selected from among the best of the remaining applicants. Although not directly matched with the experimental group, they resembled them closely in academic background, professional competence, and the recommendations of the faculty interviewers.

Closely related to the problem of location and selection of the new part-time Faculty Interns is the problem of inducement. In the third week of the seminar the Interns were asked to write a brief statement answering this question: "As much as you understand it yourself, what were the inducements for you to undergo this program?" Sample responses were as follows:

> I entered the preparation program because I would like to teach. However, I would have been reluctant to teach without the benefit of some training or orientation program. The prospect of four months of supervised preparation was the chief inducement for my participation.
>
> . . . I believe that in order to teach one has to know his subject a little better than if he were not teaching and that it would be of benefit to me personally to study during the winter months in preparation for teaching this course.
>
> For some time I had wanted to avail myself of an opportunity to do some part-time teaching at the college level. This program seemed to present such an opportunity, with the extra attraction, in view of my lack of teaching experience, of a training period during which the basic knowledge, both theoretical and practical (especially the latter), about teaching could be obtained and, hopefully, assimilated.
>
> I have always felt a desire to teach, but I also feared that I would not be successful if I were just flung into the teaching profession without some understanding of what a teacher's job really accomplishes. I felt that this program would bridge the technical knowledge I felt I had and the teaching knowledge I lacked.

From these statements, we can see that the major inducement was professional enhancement through a program of preparation. The recognition of the recruitment value of a preparation program was the first discovery in this study.

The Preparation Program

One practical way for an institution to implement "quality control" is through a faculty workshop. Rather than have a faculty workshop consider the problems of teaching at large, the plan developed here required that fifteen to twenty full-time faculty members (senior members generally, including department chairmen) be invited by the president of the university to plan a program suitable for the preparation of the new part-time faculty members. The same conceptual framework was applied as in other parts of this study. We wanted a cross-section of the university departments, so that there might be cross-stimulation of different points of view.

It was expected that these faculty members would approach the problems of teaching and the preparation for teaching in a professional manner. For instance they must decide wherein the faculty contained sufficient resources within its own group and wherein it must seek specialized consultant help from outside the group. Thus, for example, a psychologist, an educational philosopher, an experienced dean of an evening college, and a scholar of the problems of teaching in college were brought into the workshop. While there were differences among these various consultants on particular points, the similarity of approach—stressing conceptual and empirical inquiry into basic issues—was impressive, and it stimulated discussion at a high level within the workshop.

Nevertheless, the faculty members in the workshop had final say about what would be included in the preparation program, how it would be organized, and how it would be evaluated. An important by-product of the faculty workshop, gained indirectly, was the renewed interest and protracted thought these faculty members gave to their own problems of teaching.

From a financial point of view the faculty workshop had the twin advantages of being relatively low in cost and highly specific in result. The costs were borne by the university in the form of reduced teaching loads plus a reduction in committee assignments. The faculty members dropped one course and were taken off one major committee assignment to participate in the workshop and in other aspects of the preparation program for the new faculty members.

The plan of the workshop was a simple one. Faculty members met in two hour sessions daily for five weeks during one part of a summer session. Sometimes the group met in plenary sessions to consider general issues. Sometimes groups of two or three would meet together to consider particular issues and would later report back to the plenary sessions. Sometimes these smaller group meetings concerned issues relevant to only a particular subject matter area (e.g., engineering, business), and sometimes the smaller groups considered problems relevant to the whole program. For example, one of the smaller groups planned the instruments to be used in the evaluation of the preparation program; another group examined the problem of testing and measurement of student achievement.

The achievement of the workshop was twofold. First, a model program was created (see Appendix, pp. 56-58) during the summer and put into practice the following semester. Secondly, interviews with potential part-timers were held and those needed for the experiment were selected to participate in the preparation program.

The nineteen Interns who were selected were not paid for the semester during which they participated in the preparation seminar. They were, however, paid at the going rate for part-time teachers when they took over a class the following semester. During the preparation program they gave their time and energy freely and enthusiastically.

Aims of the Seminar

After the third meeting of the seminar, the Interns were asked to respond to this question: "What do you expect to achieve in the preparation program, and how do you think this might be done?" Apparently this question was an appropriate one at the time because many of the Interns wrote a considered reply.

Some expected both theoretical and practical helps in teaching. However, the expectation for help with teaching techniques was predominant in their replies, outweighing the concern for a basic philosophical point of view over three to one. Some quotations:

> I hope to learn something about the accepted teaching techniques, the so-called "tricks of the trade." I would think that the best way to prepare myself would be through discussions with those who have already proven their qualifications and by observations of classroom procedure.
>
> Specific knowledge of rules, requirements and standards at UB. This can be achieved by classroom observation especially in the class which I shall teach. It might also be of some advantage to go over examination papers with the instructor.
>
> . . . I expect to learn something of what is expected of me as a teacher; that is, to develop teaching techniques (if there are such), preparation both of class work and examinations, and my relationship with my students. I think that this may be done by my witnessing several classes in the field in which I am to teach, several meetings with

> the member of the faculty who teaches my course full-time and by lectures and by discussions by members of the faculty on subjects which I have just mentioned.
>
> . . . From this preparation program I hope to learn something in connection with the following items—(1) how to organize a course, (2) how to give an examination, (3) how to arouse interest of the student, and (4) classroom techniques.
>
> Three things: (1) learn something about the philosophy of teaching so that I may better be able to cope with student problems and queries as they arise; (2) learn something of the mechanics of teaching so that I may better prepare and present a subject; (3) learn something of the mechanics required in working for this institution. . . .
>
> . . . I look forward to learning about the proper preparation of examination papers, marking, and the mechanics of organizing and presenting a course.
>
> . . . I would expect that much of the time would be spent in expounding the techniques of teaching. I would be interested in methods of putting across ideas, in methods of measuring student response, as well as in the practical details of managing a class.

It would seem evident from the selections above that teaching techniques and classroom specifics were the foremost considerations of the Interns at the beginning of the seminar. Three or four of the Interns indicated a passing interest in a basic point of view; the others wanted help with their subject matter preparation. (It was not assumed that the Intern would receive subject matter help from the seminar, but rather from the faculty sponsor assigned to him.)

In addition to revealing the view of college teaching as primarily a matter of teaching techniques, these statements reveal the Interns' lack of appreciation of the broader purposes of college education. The Intern saw his role as that of a pale imitation of the master teacher. He sought to know how he ought to teach if he followed "accepted" practices—as if the character and personality of the Intern and his past experience and the character and personalities of the students and their past experiences had nothing (or very little) to do with the task at hand. Further, only three persons were concerned with aims, with "why" something should be taught. There was scant consideration of the purposes or aims of college education. In short, the Interns' expectations were quite different from the general ideas animating this study.

Should the seminar program stress tips on teaching, or basic ideas on education? To have followed the wishes of the Interns in their expectations for the preparation program would have defeated the purpose of the experiment. The preparation program was designed to consider both a professional person and the professional requirements of teaching. The issue is reminiscent of the argument over the Horace Mann type of teacher institutes of one hundred years ago. These institutes taught teaching techniques in a short time to new teachers of limited theoretical knowledge and skill. A program designed in line with the wishes of the Interns would have been of the non-professional type, stressing routine clerical procedures, such as grading, controlling the physical environment, and giving an assignment. Such matters are easily learned by sub-professional assistants, but they are hardly the basic kind of learning required of a teacher who conceives of his task broadly and comprehensively. Therefore, in this study the issue was resolved in favor of a concern with theories of philosophy, psychology, and sociology.

The task of preparing the professional teacher was regarded as one which would (1) respect the integrity of each new Faculty Intern, (2) place some demands of originality upon the Intern as he sought to fashion his fundamental knowledge to fit the task at hand, (3) require substantial responsibility of the Intern in accepting the consequences of his acts, and (4) expect the kind of interpersonal relationships that promote fundamental respect for independent critical thinking which is conducive to personal growth. These four requirements suggest an awareness by the college teacher of a consistent point of view or an explicit theoretical framework.

Education as a field of study has, at the moment, no high level theory comparable to that of thermodynamics in the physical sciences. The absence of a single, dominating theory creates a condition where many less powerful theories are constructed and utilized. These theories may be classified into three types: scientific, philosophic, and pedagogic.

Scientific theories, such as Clark Hull's theory of learning, seek to establish relations between logical-mathematical propositions and observations of behavior under discriminating conditions. Philosophic theories, such as theories of knowledge or value, seek to establish relations between propositions about personal beliefs, ideas, and key facts about the world. Pedagogic theories, such as theories of interest and effort, or rationales about curricular issues, seek to establish relations between propositions about conditions of teaching and what one ought to do in facing these conditions.

The theory presented here is pedagogic. It consists of a series of six propositions, set in terms somewhat like moral principles prescriptive of behavior. These propositions are stated as if they were in an "ought" form: "You ought to do this." Statements in this form are frequently objected to because of their authoritativeness. Yet, it remains the case that something must be asserted before something else can be tested. These six propositions set the conditions for teaching in the seminar.

The first condition was that of heterogeneity. All colleges within the university were to be represented if possible. Men and women, young and old, those with advanced scholarly work in their fields and those with years of experience outside a scholarly setting, were to make up the experimental group. The humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences were to be represented among the Faculty Interns. This heterogeneity was in fact achieved in the experiment.

The second condition underlying the study is related to the first. Interaction among the Interns and interplay of various points of view was expected and was deemed desirable. There would be no attempt to legislate or indoctrinate a point of view toward teaching. Disagreement, to the extent of putting a person's point of view in jeopardy, was encouraged as a way of inducing perplexity.

Perplexity, then, is the third condition. Perplexity is here intended to mean cognitive perplexity, or the recognition of needing to know something not now known as well as the recognition of some uncertainty about things presumed "known."

In addition to the perplexity induced by differences within the group of Interns, the preparation program was deliberately planned to present competing, alternative points of view. This fourth condition was implemented by presenting to the Interns a wide variety of model teachers. The teachers were to be "model" teachers in that they were asked to present a capsule of instruction which would contain educational philosophy, educational method, and educational technique. In addition to the model teachers brought into the seminar, the preparation program itself was planned with a view toward presenting exemplary learning situations.

The fifth condition offers a framework for the first four. Theories from philosophy, psychology, and sociology were presented as relevant to the need for a comprehensive framework of thought. The need for such a framework was generated during the preparation program. It was found that the Interns needed some way to make sense of the varied and conflicting experiences they were having. The heterogeneity of the group, the sometimes confusing interactions, and the early adoption of the new role of teacher engendered perplexity. The theories were then offered to the Interns, not as something they could just passively understand, but as something to use in preparing for teaching. The theories could be used to supply direction (since they are systematic), to induce the search for relevant evidence (since they are detailed and precise), and to offer grounds for making decisions concerning new problems arising with teaching and the selection of subject matter for students.

The intern was expected to experience directly the value of using his intelligence to solve an immediate and pressing problem: how to think about teaching. It was felt that college learning will more probably tax the intelligence of students if college teachers are convinced from their own experience of the value of active inquiry into problems combining non-cognitive and cognitive aspects. Thus, the seminar required more than rote memorization of rules and exceptions, more than faithful imitation of an approved master teacher's personality, more than the spontaneous, sheer creation of the intuition of the "born" teacher. Furthermore, the seminar was expected to offer more than "tricks of the trade" in teaching techniques and more than a poor Richard's almanac of teaching methodology; it was expected to offer an opportunity for the intelligent application of theory to practice. The seminar required of the Interns disciplined intelligence seeking consistency and moral earnestness seeking growth. It required, in short, the characteristics of professional behavior.

The attempt in the seminar was to pose alternatives in attitudes toward teaching. Lack of consensus or agreement in the seminar itself was the operating condition. The heterogeneity of the various academic disciplines stimulated this heterogeneity of attitude. Most of the Interns thought that the difference of opinion was healthy and invigorating—an ever-present challenge to think carefully and for one's self. It would do little good for a prospective teacher of history to ape the specific attitudes of a prospective teacher of physics. The two disciplines might nave a great deal in common, but such commonality would have to be reached for—it does not appear on the surface. When one Intern said, "Science is an exact discipline, whereas social science is not," he was quickly challenged by other Interns. Or if the statement was lightly made that "A fact is a fact," the speaker was quite likely challenged by the observation that it is interpretations which make "facts" facts; there is nothing written on the face of a fact which labels it "Fact."

Alternative attitudes were presented and discussed in the seminar. The purpose of the seminar was to stimulate the Intern to think in a protracted and deliberate way about educational issues and attitudes. There was no attempt made to persuade all the Interns to one way of thinking. An open-ended approach, presenting defensible alternatives, with the decision being left up to each Intern on how to proceed once in the classroom—such was the bias of the seminar.

Agenda of the Seminar[2]

Before the first meeting of the seminar program, each newly appointed Intern was sent a letter of welcome by the study director. Included with this letter were a time schedule of the preparation program, University catalogues and maps, parking stickers, etc. In addition, the letter invited the Intern to attend the initial "ice breaking" meeting.

During the initial meeting, each Intern was introduced to his faculty sponsor. Also during this meeting, the Dean of the College of Arts and Science described the history of the University, and the President spoke briefly on the University's ideals and policies. Primarily, however, the purpose of this meeting was to provide a personal welcome to each Intern, and to make him feel at home.

The second meeting of the seminar program was devoted to testing of the Interns. At this time, initial scores on the major measuring instruments of the study were obtained.

Following these preliminaries, the seminar program got under way. On successive weeks, the previously determined major topics of the preparation program were presented. This program began with a general over-view of the teaching profession, including, for instance, the importance and nature of academic freedom. Guest lecturers discussed (and provoked discussion of) such topics as student expectations and attitudes toward college teaching, "shared inquiry" as an approach to teaching, the application of psychological theory to teaching practice, the aims of teaching, theories of knowledge, theories of value, and the evaluation of teaching. Near the end of the program "model" teachers demonstrated and defended alternative approaches to teaching. One final meeting was devoted to reviewing and summarizing the seminar experience.

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[2] See Appendix, p. 56, for a complete agenda.

At the conclusion of the seminar program, the Interns were tested for a second time on the major measuring instruments used in the study. During the operation of the seminar a log of events was kept by the director of the study. A faculty member served as an observer-recorder. In the pages to follow, large excerpts from seminar sessions are presented. All names of persons involved have been changed.

Excerpts from the Chronological Log of Faculty Intern Seminar

October 30, 1957

Plan for session

We wanted the Interns to encounter directly some of the important differences among the evening college students and the different conceptions held by members of the faculty. These differences concerned expectations for the teacher (the teacher's role), conceptions of learning, reasons for going to college, justifications for a good teacher.

In the first session, as in those to follow, a number of the six key principles previously described can be seen operating.

The principle of heterogeneity was exemplified by selecting a panel of six persons reflecting a number of different characteristics—two young, full-time students who sometimes took courses in the evening (a girl and a boy), and two older adult students—one in business and one in engineering—and two faculty members with teaching duties who also worked in the Personnel Office—the male director of Student Personnel and the female director of dormitories. These six persons composed a panel dealing with the topic, "The Good College Teacher." The differences that emerged in their presentation and through their cross-questioning of each other, plus the searching questions provided by the Interns illustrated the principles of interaction. Since the panel members disagreed on a number of points, perplexity was induced in the Interns through the presentation of alternative points of view.

Finally, the panel was not set as a debate or as a discussion in which one person or one side would "win." It was designed to expose genuinely held convictions not easily subject to change. No attempt was made to achieve consensus.

This session, as do the ones to follow, illustrates the application of some of the principles of our theory to the practice of teaching. As the sessions progressed, the approach became more and more obvious to the Interns. The session lasted for two hours. A condensation and abstraction of the points made during the discussion are listed after the name of each person.

Louise—The good instructor makes his material interesting. He is interested in students as persons. He will listen to the criticisms of students, treat students as adults. A poor teacher is one who does not tell us what we should learn. He is one who is disorganized; the student is lost. Often he lectures on what we could have read in the textbook at home. A good teacher should cover some ground, not go in a circle, should be honest when he does not know an answer, and should know the names of students. While exams are necessary, students do not like to memorize details which they know they will forget. Students like exams to be on something general; something students can remember and can use. The chief function of a teacher is to clarify and to expand.

Vincent—A good teacher is well organized. He should, within the first one or two sessions, give an overview of the whole course. The teacher should realize that students are independent or else they would not be in college. Frequent testing is good. To have a course in which only two examinations are given is a threat to the student. A good teacher lectures in a way so as to co-ordinate his lectures with the readings in the text. The purpose of college education is to make you think logically.

Mr. A.—The adult student cannot tolerate fun-making on the part of the instructor. The adult student has a hunger for knowledge and wants the instructor to get down to brass tacks. Whatever is taught must be productive for the adult, and this means he may put it to some immediate use. Grades seem to make less difference to adults than to younger students. Personality is more important than grades to someone in industry who hires the products of college. Day and evening students being mixed in the same class is not good. Students must contribute at least 90 per cent of every course.

Mr. T.—A good teacher must be a leader. He must feel the pulse of a class and must talk students into profitable learning activities. A good teacher must be enthusiastic about what he is teaching. He must have a structure and must repeat principles and concepts as the pillars of the structure. Discrete facts do not mean anything until the student all of a sudden perceives the structure in which the facts fit.

Dr. W.—Faculty are advisors to students whether they want to be or not. Hence, it is important that faculty listen to students, help them in learning, make suggestions on how to take notes, how to read, how to study. Every instructor should become familiar with the tests we give our students here. We have reading tests, English usage tests, and Universal English Program, etc. Instructors must create for students an atmosphere for doing the best they can. If the instructor is not interested in the individual student, he is then failing to teach. We do not teach subjects; we teach students. The aims of teaching are not only to instruct in knowledge but to (1) help adjust the student to the world and to himself, (2) to teach democracy and citizenship, (3) to teach aesthetic appreciation, and (4) to teach vocational competence.

(Dr. F. was in general agreement with Dr. W.)

Comment

Louise, the young girl, was winning and personable. She expected the teachers to treat her as a person, as an adult. On the other hand she seemed to find teachers "poor" who did not let her "in on the secret"—when they did not tell her what to learn. Louise's approach to college learning seems to be that of many adolescents who are trying to answer for themselves the question "Who am I?" Her need is for identification and psychological support. Teachers who ask students to "memorize details" really seem to be treating college students like high school pupils rather than as adults. It is this lack of recognition of the persons seeking adult status that she finds the chief defect in college teachers. The mature adult, however, does not expect to be told what to learn (viz. Mr. A.); he is not as dependent upon the teacher as the young college student who needs adult models.

Although young Vincent has similar concern, he does not use nor depend on personality so much to win his case. He tries to present a logical, rather than psychological, approach. While he states that students are "independent" he also states that teachers can threaten this independence through teaching procedures (two tests instead of frequent testing). To give an overview of the course, to co-ordinate lecturer and readings, to make you think logically are all more logical than psychological arguments for the good teacher.

Mr. A., an adult business student, expects to work hard on the subject matter and to keep personality development to a minimum—apparently because he knows how to use his personality successfully in industry where he works. What he seeks in college, then, is knowledge that he can put to immediate use.

Mr. T., an adult engineering student, has a different conception of knowledge. He is interested in concepts, ideas, and principles. For him, immediate use of information is much less important than the "structure" of knowledge. His good teacher must be effective as a person who can combine the psychological (an enthusiastic leader) and the logical (the instructor of ideas) in teaching.

Dr. W. wants teachers to deal with persons, not classes. His good teacher knows his students, both informally and formally (through standardized tests). He tries to adjust students to the world; but this adjustment is personal-social, not essentially conceptual. His "good teacher" fits the young undergraduates better than the adult learners. Dr. F. agreed with Dr. W., which for purposes of the seminar was a disappointment, since we expected Dr. F. to take the point of view of the adult learner. It was brought out by Dr. Gowin that the adult learner may have difficulties if subject matter challenges his more or less set ways of thinking. The coercion of old habits may be the chief impediment to rapid learning in the adult. Mr. A. may be frustrated if subject matter is presented as concepts which do not have immediate usefulness. Mr. T. may have difficulty if the subject matter is presented as a string of facts without a conceptual framework.

In summary, it seems as if the teacher has an impossible task, for he cannot please everyone. It was our conviction that the teacher needs a conception of teaching that is defensible and that takes into account in some consistent way the various realities of the teaching situation. We thought that the seminar did lay the groundwork for seeking consistency in thought and attitude. Obviously, the chief task in their preparation for teaching was to enable the Interns to make sense of the often-conflicting differences.

Evaluation of the evening

The fact that over half of the Interns continued their discussion for half an hour to an hour suggested considerable personal involvement in the issues raised in the evening's seminar. Four of these issues are:

A. Is it the teacher's responsibility to make material interesting, or would the student find it interesting if he put forth the effort to learn it? This is the distinction between interest and effort.

B. How far down the list of real motives of college students is the desire to learn subject matter? It was apparent to the Interns that adult evening students had a different desire to learn as their reason for being in college from day students.

C. The two day students wanted faculty to take a personal interest in them but they did not want to take responsibility for planning a course with the teacher. These students felt the courses must be ready-made without putting responsibility on the student, but should take the student into account. This brings up the issue of teacher-student planning.

D. Can the teacher give students intellectual discipline, or must students find it for themselves in an atmosphere where knowledge and learning are created co-operatively?

November 6, 1957

Professor Robbins, Guest Lecturer

Plan of session

This session with Dr. Robbins and the following session with Dr. Richter illustrate the frameworks of thought of these teachers as well as the theories and practices which are contained within the framework.

Dr. Robbins' framework of thought embraces two theories, one philosophical and the other psychological.

His philosophical theory involves a conception of man, knowledge, and value. Value (goals) and knowledge are created rather than discovered. His psychological theory is an interpretation of Freudian theory. He sees men as having tensions and energy which demand an outlet.

Within this framework emerges a theory, a generalized method of teaching (problem-solving) and a technique of teaching (use of essays to teach). Dr. Robbins was requested to organize his presentation so that theory, method and techniques of teaching would be emphasized. The following description of Robbins' use of theory, method, and techniques is illustrated in the log:

Theory:	Man is an energetic goal-seeker creating values and knowledge.
Method:	Problem-solving method through inquiry shared by teacher and student.
Technique:	Using essays as a teaching device.

We can see in this next session how principle, method, and technique were blended. The technique involved having students write essays from their personal experience. The method involved the treatment of the essays in ways other than simple grading (A, B, or C), and the principle (shared inquiry) was used to suggest the method and to account for the technique of teaching.

Clarification and higher mental processes

The Faculty Interns were asked to write an essay on "The Good College Teacher." These essays were given to Dr. Robbins to read before he came to the class meeting. He analyzed these papers and wrote comments on a separate sheet. In class, he read a portion of a paper and then read his comments and asked for questions from the Interns about his comments. For example, he asked the person who wrote a description of a teacher of classics this question, "Does a teacher of classics have a head start over the rest of us simply by virtue of intrinsic value of what he is teaching?" Another question was asked of a person who felt that the teacher's job was primarily one of guidance. "Since you gave no definition of guidance, what can it mean?" Professor Robbins asked another Intern, "Are all good teachers all good, and bad teachers all bad?" Professor Robbins suggested to an Intern that he write a paragraph describing how the good and bad college teachers are alike instead of how they are different. And further, what are the implications for college teaching of the fact that college teachers have had different personal experiences? Does a man's experience shape his teaching?

Professor Robbins described his technique of teaching this course as follows: Any paper or lab report or other product of student work should be two papers—the first paper will be turned in, read by the instructor, and returned to the student with comments. The student will attempt, next, to rewrite the paper in line with the instructor's comments. Several assumptions are involved in this technique:

1. The questions the instructor raises about the student's paper are not rhetorical questions, but questions which genuinely puzzle the instructor. Professor Robbins calls this "shared inquiry."
2. Professor Robbins believes that teaching is best when teacher and student are brought into a man-to-man relation in the facing of a common problem.
3. The instructor's purpose is to clarify. This may be done in a variety of ways:
    a. reflect ideas, not merely facts
    b. ask students to clarify concepts
    c. note possible contradictions in ideas and concepts
    d. ask for definitions, illustrations, examples from students
    e. ask about the comprehensiveness of explanations given by students, i.e., are explanations adequate to the problem?
    f. look for false or misleading generalizations—for example, look for such key words as "all," "none," "never," statements implying cause or influence, correlation, proportion, name-calling, labeling statements; "if-then" statements, use of analogies, similes, and metaphors.
    g. ask students to write a summary

Professor Robbins believes that all of these seven notions require the utilization of higher mental processes.

Aims of education

Professor Robbins believes that each of us has tensions or needs, personal and attitudinal, which create energy. These energies have as their purpose the achievement of values. The aim of education, then, is the seeking of ways to use energy. People take pleasure in the seeking of goals. An instructor does not need to know, except in a general way, that his students are seeking goals; but the instructor can contribute most in furthering not the goals, but the seeking of the goals. Professor Robbins seems to believe that process is more important than product. He implies that logic and linguistic analysis are tools of the college teacher who is attempting to utilize higher mental processes.

He was asked what was the function of information. He replied, tautologically, that information informs. Informs what? Information to be valuable informs (a) attitudes, (b) interests, (c) beliefs, (d) purposes, (e) aspiration, and (f) thinking—relevant to judgments, decisions.

As a consequence of Professor Robbins' definition of the aims of teaching, we may derive a criterion for judging teaching. We ask, "How much seeking (process) is involved?" Those methods of teaching which encourage more seeking are better than those methods which inhibit seeking. It does not matter what knowledge, i.e., subject matter, we are trying to impart. The Aeneid or Accounting—either may be used in good teaching The teacher in either case must clarify to help the student to become a seeker. The student will then be able to continue learning well after the class is over.

November 13, 1957

Dr. Richter, Guest Lecturer

Dr. Richter has a framework of thought composed primarily of psychological theories coupled with the disciplined approach of the scholar chiefly concerned with subject matter.

As in the preceding session with Dr. Robbins, Dr. Richter was requested to illustrate the blending of theory, method, and techniques. The following outline results:

Theory:	Gestalt Theory of Perception as an Approach To Learning
Method:	Formal lecture
Technique:	Unannounced quiz

Some points made by Dr. Richter

Conditioning theory based on studies with rats is rejected. They are based on experiments which do not take into account the abstraction of symbols, i.e., language, which is the mark of humans. Nevertheless, since much teaching in the high schools is predicated on behavioristic principles, students coming to college are notoriously deficient in understanding the process of concept formation.

Gestalt-Theorie is a theory of perception. Duncker (On Problem Solving) and Wertheimer (On Productive Thinking) asked this basic question: how does a solution rise out of a problem? The answer they give is this: Perceptual re-organization.

Piaget has a workable theory of learning. This theory attacks John Stuart Mill's concept of mental images. Mill thought images emerged immediately from outside impressions. Universals for Mill were derived from a plurality of particulars. Piaget believes you cannot derive the concept "one" from objects. Concepts apparently come from subjects, for

Piaget's images are reproductions of actions. Apparently, operations produce images. (This might be the basis for the validity of operational definitions. Peirce reverses Piaget. Peirce writes that it is the function of actions or operations to make ideas clear. It may be that Piaget is climbing up one side of the ladder of abstraction, i.e. from operations to images; and Peirce is coming down the ladder, i.e., from ideas to actions.)

Piaget's theory is something like Tilton's theory of cue reduction which states that cues reduce prior excessive operations.

Heidbredder prefers to write about the "capta" of experience and not the "data." It is more important what we take from experience ("capta"—the taken) than what we find ready-made ("data"—the given).

Implications for adult learning:

A. Words have a history: in explanation and teaching, it is helpful to go back to earlier operations to help to make words concrete. For example, the word "theory" means spectacle, means something to look at, means a fresh outlook.

B. In any teaching, one can emphasize historical situations. The rights of man, the meaning of freedom, etc., can be taught by re-establishing the original contribution out of which these refined abstractions emerged.

C. A new behavior, i.e., learning, never emerges abruptly. There is always an earlier series of operations and actions (events). It is a purpose of teaching, then, to re-establish disrupted continuity. There is a continuity in all things.

November 20, 1957

The Faculty Interns were given a five-minute unannounced quiz. This quiz was based upon lecture material given the week before by Dr. Richter. The quiz was prepared by her also. The technique of using unannounced quizzes was discussed. The Interns wrote their comments as to the value of this teaching technique. A couple of assumptions emerged.

A. This technique works upon the principle of motivation by fear. Students keep up in a course because they are afraid that if they do not, they will not be able to pass in an unannounced quiz. This approach to teaching seems to imply that learning accumulates in even-sized bits of knowledge. Upon this assumption, every student who keeps up bit by bit, week by week, is, or should be, a good student. The theory of learning involved here is a behavioristic-atomistic one.

B. The Gestalt-Theorie makes a different assumption: learning is primarily re-organization. Learning may not necessarily occur in atomistic bits. Rather, learning is based upon seeing new relations. Unless such a quiz be given to require re-organization, it would not promote learning. Simple recall of information would not be justification for such a quiz.

Some of the Interns perceived that an unannounced quiz was really not so much a quiz of how well the students are doing, but rather an indication of the effectiveness of the teacher. Upon this assumption the lecture method of teaching would seem to be very inefficient.

Summary evaluative comments (Professors Robbins and Richter)

The Interns were favorably impressed by Dr. Robbins. They experienced directly the feeling of sharing ideas and problems with a gifted teacher. Communication was easily established and inquiry furthered. They recognized their shortcomings in a way that stimulated them to think more deeply. The support available from a well-grounded framework of thought was understood. In some cases, the beginnings made in their essays on good teaching were developed as the experiment progressed.

Dr. Richter impressed the Interns also, but in a different way. Here was a mind stocked with great learning. They recognized her erudition. Yet, despite the fact that the topic was "learning," very little (if any) learning took place. Most surprising was the fact that the Interns did not perceive the relevance of "learning theory" to teaching. They all failed the unannounced quiz.

Plan of sessions

Four model teachers taught in the next two sessions, each having one hour. Their assignment was to give a capsule of instruction (they chose their own topics), and then to discuss and defend the ideas, methods, and techniques of teaching.

A word about the sense in which these teachers were "models." While they were all excellent teachers, they were not presented as master teachers for the Interns to imitate. Rather they were proposed as models of basic ideas of teaching. They were chosen as persons who would ably present their convictions about the best way to teach, although they all recognized that their way was not the only way or the best way to teach.

Professors Robbins and Richter presented content which was directly pedagogical. These four presented varied content with the focus on the form, not content. The Interns, however, were not informed of this fact beforehand.

The pedagogical form may be represented in the sequence used as follows:

1. Dr. Little: Didactic, and persuasive
2. Dr. Berg: Didactic, and non-persuasive
3. Dr. Duroff: Non-didactic, and non-persuasive
4. Dr. Brew: Non-didactic, and persuasive

Some of the principles which led to this arrangement have been discussed before. It is clear that the juxtaposition of the four model teachers illustrates the principle of competing and alternative points of view toward good teaching. The Interns were not given an abstract verbal statement of the differing conceptions of teaching; they encountered them directly, as students in a classroom. Questions asked of the model teachers revealed some insight as well as cognitive perplexity concerning the "why" of teaching. Moreover, interaction between teachers and Interns, between Interns and Interns, continues to work as a process by which ideas and attitudes are expressed and clarified.

Outside of specific situations, there seems to be no single best way to teach. Specific situations are characterized by differences in the people involved (teacher and students), differences in basic ideas and subject matter, and differences in the limitations of physical conditions. However, when these characteristics are given specific meaning, one approach to teaching may be superior to others in that situation. A female history teacher with a given background and interest in history, teaching adult students in an evening college for the first time will develop a "best" way of teaching in that situation. Her teaching, therefore, is likely to be different from that of another person in the same or in another situation. The model teachers demonstrated dramatically differences in methods of teaching. They exposed different personalities at work on different subject matters.

December 11, 1957

Two guest lecturers were requested to illustrate a directive method of teaching. Dr. Little talked about "The Next Ten Years at UB." Dr. Berg lectured on "Rocket and Jet Propulsion."

Dr. Little:

A. Teaching techniques used by Dr. Little

1. Four physical objects were brought in
   - a. a map of the eighty acres which UP expects to acquire
   - b. a lamp of learning in a glass case
   - c. a piece of tile brought over from the old campus
   - d. a number of published reports
2. The lecturer had an outline on his desk to which he referred often. In presenting a series of ideas, he said, "first, then second, then third, etc."
3. Important ideas were repeated slowly.
4. Direct quotations were read from the original source.
5. Midway during the lecture, he asked for ideas from the class. These ideas were put on the board. In some cases, the lecturer edited some of the ideas, hence giving an opportunity for making value judgment. The lecturer frequently made reference to the kind of audience he was speaking to, acknowledging both their experience and inexperience. He used current events as a means for ascribing to the audience some knowledge which they might not have had but should have had.
6. At the end of the lecture, he made a summary of the important ideas.

B. After this presentation, several ideas about these techniques of teaching were discussed. The question was asked if the same amount of information received from the lecturer could better have been presented by a dittoed report. The class seemed to feel that there was something over and beyond information which was given by the lecturer. When pressed, however, they were somewhat unable to describe what the additional something was. Gradually through discussion, it appeared that the lecturer was using information to persuade. Should a teacher try to persuade students? If a teacher feels that persuasion to a point of view is correct, then how does the teacher handle those students who on responsible grounds wish to disagree with the point of view the teacher is trying to persuade them to accept? Assuming that the teacher is successful at the moment, that is, is compellingly persuasive, what happens to students who are at another time in the audience of an equally persuasive speaker holding a different point of view? Will they be persuaded to accept something contrary to their earlier acceptance? If they are, then the first part of teaching is wasted. As the old saying goes, "A man persuaded against his will remains of the same opinion still."

C. Dr. Little called attention to one thing which he felt was very important for any teacher to do. He felt that a teacher should never sit behind his desk and lecture. The reason for this tactic was that the teacher can be in control of the situation more easily if he is standing and his students are sitting. Walking around the room was helpful; being animated in general is a way to encourage "contagious enthusiasm."

The Interns took notes. When asked why they took notes, they didn't know. The apparent reason was that they assumed it was a lecture, and the outlines or categories which the lecturer gave to the class seemed to call for writing them down.

Dr. Berg:

A. Dr. Berg lectured on the general proposition that Newton's second law of motion, known for over two hundred years, provides a very adequate explanation for rocket propulsion. In making this general point, Dr. Berg did a number of things:

   1. He wrote his formula on the board.

   2. He used "homey" examples, such as a garden hose, or a boy in a boat.

   3. Current events ("Sputnik") were used.

B. Comments:

   1. The most striking difference between these two lecturers was the absence of persuasion in the second lecturer. The second lecturer made no attempt to persuade his audience that they ought to believe his general propositions. Some criticized this lecturer for not being really interesting to them. What they meant by this conclusion was that they were not personally and immediately involved in the content, which suggested they had a passing interest in "Sputnik." Few of the Interns took notes, even though the lecture was obviously well organized. The second lecturer, like the first, had a pleasing manner, used humor effectively, obviously knew what he was talking about, and was obviously interested in the material. Yet with all these similarities, there was no doubt but what the first lecturer was more "interesting."

   2. We tried to analyze the reasons for this conclusion. One thing which the second lecturer did was to attribute to his class, experiences that they did not have. He said, "I am assuming you are juniors in engineering." Save for the four engineers in the class at the time, this ascription of experience was obviously false. A teacher cannot give to students verbally experiences they have not had actually. The fallacy perhaps characterizes most unsuccessful teaching. The teacher who says to his sophomore class, "You will need this in a few years when you are in the work-a-day world," may be right in his prediction. But the hoped-for education effect, i.e., interest, motivation, concern for information, is not achieved by didactic edict. The general conclusion to be drawn is that in teaching one must take the students where they are in their experience because they are there and no place else.

December 18, 1957

The purpose of the meeting Wednesday evening was to demonstrate non-directive teaching theory and techniques. Toward this purpose two speakers were used, Mr. Duroff and Professor Brew.

Mr. Duroff began his session by saying that he was going to think about the problem of "teaching, communication: a two-way process."

A. He set the plan by saying, "I am a stranger to you. Will you please help me to help you by telling me what your concerns have been in previous sessions." At this he stopped. There was a silence of two minutes. He then said, "I am open to contributions. It doesn't have to be my way; it can be yours." Quinn and Carlson made a comment to which Mr. Duroff added nothing. There was another silence of about five minutes. Mr. Duroff said, "My approach may be quite unexpected. I am turning the tables on you. Do you people like to be taken by surprise?" After another long silence, Carlson said, "You are not co-operating." Mr. Duroff reflected this comment that maybe the teacher and the class had reached an impasse. "I am not co-operating so you won't. Two can play at this game. I am not sticking my neck out until I know what you (the teacher) want. Unless I can give a grade A response, I won't because I want an A grade."

B. The teacher refuses to give approval; students feel uneasy when the teacher does not approve or disapprove of their response. This condition points up the fact that in our culture students have a great need to seek the teacher's approval in order to know what correct response should be given.

C. Norton said that it was the mark of an educated person to be amazed at nothing. Yet it seemed quite evident that the class was amazed, in wonder, in attitude, in uncertainty, in general uneasiness. One student suggested we were wasting time. Another suggested that this was a wonderful demonstration of how not to do it, i.e., negative teaching. This remark was reflected to mean "you feel that I could not be so stupid as to do this for no reason. Therefore, you graciously get me off the hook by suggesting that this is a model of what is bad."

D. Rodgers contrasted two methods of teaching which we had experienced previously and asked Mr. Duroff which of these two he thought was right, to which Mr. Duroff said, "The first principle of teaching is that one must first establish a state of readiness in the student." Perry suggested that students are ready for anything but exams—they are ready for a date, for a football game, etc. Mr. Duroff suggested, "You do not trust students' wanting to learn."

E. After another exchange of opinion in which Mr. Duroff was accused of being as inert as a telephone pole and not helping in any way, he suggested that the class itself had not answered the first question. The class continually moved to ask for content, that is, they wanted Mr. Duroff to tell them something, whereas he was stressing process. At this point Thompson asked him to write on the board his initial question, which Mr. Duroff did. Thompson suggested that Mr. Duroff was demonstrating an attitude of a student who is unable to think with a teacher. Thompson was trying to make a very subtle point that some students really want to learn but can't seem to find the right handles. They cannot communicate their inadequacies to the teacher; and feeling this, they cannot express that point at which learning must be started. How does it feel to want to know something and be frustrated because you cannot express even your ignorance? Mr. Duroff made the point then that it is fitting and proper that we learn how to admit our ignorance and inadequacies and that the first thing that any student must learn is that there is something that he does not know. Our typical methods of teaching, however, never allow, much less encourage, students to admit this to themselves. As a consequence, most people do not know why they are learning; and the result of education is a superficial overlay rather than the inner penetration of ideas with feelings.

F. Dodd suggested that actually Mr. Duroff was making them think. He was teaching higher mental processes, and he was using the resources contacted within the group. He suggested that the teachers were in the group rather than that Mr. Duroff was the teacher. A cross fire of ideas and an exchange of opinion within the group had occurred. Different levels of sensitivity, different insights, different ideas emerged as a result of what Mr. Duroff was doing or not doing. Mr. Duroff reflected this idea by contrasting two kinds of teaching. "In the usual case the teacher is like a little sun radiating lights to each student individually. In the other case the teacher creates a matrix or web of communication among and between students."

G. By reflecting ideas and feelings, Mr. Duroff was actually clarifying. Some students did not like their own words or ideas when they were simply reflected back to them. Some said, "No, I was not saying that," etc.

Mr. Duroff analyzed his approach:

A. Silence is not a bad thing. Culturally, however, we are conditioned to cover up embarrassing silences with empty words. The college teacher should not be upset at silence because silence is a most elemental basis for communication.

B. Anxiety and hostility is not a bad thing either. Out of anxiety comes effort to resolve anxiety. The teacher, however, must not take the expression of anxiety personally. The teacher must not panic because, in fact, he is doing his job of creating an atmosphere in which people really begin to think.

C. The teacher, using this approach, contributes positively to the acknowledgment of the fact that students do not come to class empty-headed. Students bring with them a variety of resources which it is the job of the teacher to mobilize so that students may actually build up from what they really know.

D. The usual conception of teaching is that of a group of students without any ideas but presumably with an open mind waiting to be filled. They are bored and waiting to be entertained. They are characterless waiting to be driven and led to what they ought to want to do anyway. Students ought to want to be interested. If they are not interested, then we must make them, must coerce them, must do it for their own good.

Evaluation of the session.

A. Mr. Duroff analyzed his technique the next day. He reported that he could have improved his presentation by giving them an analysis of what happened in the group process. In his analysis he noted the following sequence of events:

1. The first reaction was one of recalcitrance. From this feeling, the group moved into antagonism. One member said he would just as soon talk to a telephone pole.
2. The group moved into a deeper feeling of resentment.
3. From resentment they moved into intellectual charges against the group leader. They said he had created a vacuum here. The statement about being amazed at nothing illustrates this state of feeling.
4. Next the charges became personal. They said the group leader was without feeling.

B. It was at this point, according to Mr. Duroff, that the group derived pleasure and strength from seeing that the group leader did not break when subjected to these charges. Mr. Duroff said, "There was an empathic, non-verbal force at work." There must have been some reason why the group leader was doing what he was doing, and he must have known what he was doing, as he was able to take the gaff of the group. Mr. Duroff noted that at no time did he act flippant. He did not let himself be drawn into the temptation to manipulate people by stepping on their feelings. He contrasted his behavior with that of the other teachers who shuffle ideas in order to outwit the student. At approximately the same point in this process, Mr. Duroff turned to Dr. Gowin and asked him the direction the group should follow. The reply was that the group process was going along beautifully and that good progress was being made. Two or three students began to think at this point. There was a definite transition from the earlier anxious moments into moments of clarification and enlightenment. Gates asked if the group leader was not helping us to find out what we mean with our own words and ideas by reflecting them back to us. Thompson took note of the condition of the bewildered student and suggested that we might be seeing how it seems to be a bewildered student. Dodd pointed out the fact that there was a web or matrix of mutual interaction among students of the group.

C. Mr. Duroff predicted that some members of the group would continue to be in disagreement with him. He said the reason for this was that he did not help them to contain their own anger. They lost their own self control (i.e., a superficial set of rules) in trying to get him to do something more like a regular school teacher. But he wouldn't. They were arguing and then they felt guilty about having others argue and having lost their own self control. These people will draw the wrong conclusion from the experience. They will make an inference to self-righteousness. They will say, "How necessary it is to maintain the typical authoritarian pattern in the classroom." It is necessary to do this to keep the students under control, but what they really mean is that it is necessary to maintain the typical pattern of authority in order to keep themselves under control.

The day after Mr. Duroff's presentation, the following letter was received. It is included because it seems to represent an articulate expression of the feelings of many of the participants.

December 19, 1957

Dear Dr. Gowin:

If, as you say, perplexity is one of the conditions for learning, then I must agree that we had a wonderful lesson last night because we had plenty of perplexity. (Personally, I have enough left over to last a day or two I think, and that is one of the reasons I am trying to clarify some of my thought by putting them on paper.)

During our first session with Mr. Duroff, I was by turns disappointed, bewildered, and annoyed by his technique; and I was embarrassed to see that we, as a group of prospective teachers, couldn't make even one comment which he deemed worthy of further discussion. I felt as if I had been expecting to enjoy a lively tennis match; and, by some mistake, I was being forced to watch a chess tournament instead. When it became obvious that anything we said was just going to fall with a dull thud, I began to feel that if he isn't going to say anything, why should I.

After all, he was presented to us as an expert in the field of educational psychology; and in view of this, I felt, as the saying goes, "Sometimes it's better to keep your mouth shut and be thought a fool, than to open it and remove all doubt."

At the intermission I told one of the other students that I would like to say, "Come now, Mr. Duroff, turn on your other personality and let's see what you can do," and the response was, "I think he doesn't have any other personality." After our second round with Mr. Duroff I felt this remark was quite close to the truth.

When Mr. Duroff offered to turn the class over to you and you said that you were quite pleased with the way things were going, I really was amazed and began to distrust both of you. I felt that the two of you were conspiring against us in some kind of a hoax, possibly some new trick of group psychoanalysis.

Since my experiences with college teachers are rather a dim memory now, I have particularly enjoyed and valued these recent demonstrations of current teaching techniques. Comparing them with the Air Force training film, which we all agreed was a bit too theatrical and salespitched, further intensifies my belief that nothing is as effective and convincing as a real live demonstration.

Even when Mr. Duroff explained what he had been doing, I still didn't believe it. While my first reaction to him and his method was negative, the more I think about it the more willing I am to concede that, regardless of his specific aims, he was provocative. And that was one quality which he claimed for his method. I believe his method also was called reflective, but I am still wondering if he did more reflecting of our ideas than we did reflecting of his indifferent attitude. During the class period I felt that most of us were not reflecting upon the suggested topic, a review of our previous class work, but were just watching the performance to see what would happen next. But now, 24 hours later, I am still reflecting and wondering if perhaps this non-directive approach has more to it than meets the eye. By comparison, the previous demonstrations by Dr. Little and Dr. Berg were much more definite, enjoyable, and satisfying

—and easily forgotten. But this last demonstration had kind of a mystifying quality about it that will make it return to haunt me from time to tim
I feel that I owe Mr. Duroff an apology for all the unkind things I thought about him last night.

Sincerely yours,

Ayers

Professor Brew began his work by having all the students receive a copy of several paragraphs written by different writers of value theory.

A. Professor Brew started his teaching with a current statement of evaluation. "Suppose," he said, "that we have a supervisor watching a teacher and marking down in his little book what he thinks the teacher is doing. How can a supervisor or external evaluator correctly evaluate teaching? Should the supervisor know what the teacher was trying to do, what his aims were?" Professor Brew made the point that we should evaluate teaching in terms of what the teacher is trying to do. Dr. Gowin asked if we would apply this same idea to Fagan's School of Thieves. Was he a good teacher? Some students said that they didn't like what Fagan was trying to do. This points up the conclusion that we evaluate teaching in terms of aims. Professor Brew suggested that we could give students the final exam on the first day of the course as a way of saying, "This is what our aims are."

B. What are good aims? After much discussion in which phrases were used like "good aims," or "aims we approve of," "we approve of them because they are good," it became obvious that there was an infinite regress from one idea of good to another idea of good, etc. Professor Brew suggested that without saying which aims are the good ones, since people have disagreed about the nature of good from time out of mind, we say the necessity is having aims. Aims are good for three things:

1. They limit and give direction to the teacher and the student.
2. They can be used to evaluate what has been done.
3. They ought to motivate learning.

Professor Brew suggested that they move from a discussion of evaluation to two aspects of value: what do we mean by value, and how do we compare (measure) value? Professor Brew suggested that value could be defined in three contrasts:

A. Value is inherent in the object.

B. Value is inherent in the subject, i.e., in desires, wants, and feelings of people.

C. Value resides in relationship between subject and object.

Professor Brew discussed his technique of teaching.

A. He said that he had reason for presenting a variety of different points of view about value. He said his reason is that we must get students to think; and if we are to get them to think, we must present contrasting, contrary ideas. We must put the students' own points of view in jeopardy.

B. Professor Brew said that he had a point of view even though it seemed that he was taking all points of view. There was one point of view which he wished to persuade to. That point of view is this: we must get people to be tolerant of other's points of view. He wants to teach students how to disagree, without being disagreeable.

Postscript to Chronological Log

The chronological log of the preservice seminar seems to be very rich in meaning, suggestion, and implication. It is not likely that all the Interns drew the same conclusions from each session. They were engrossed in their own learnings and involved in their assignment to fashion their own course of instruction. A few Interns did take notes, but not with the fervor of some undergraduates. This fact—that most Interns did not take notes—helps to point up the observation that a literal record of a linear progression of events would have been misleading; it would have missed the vital process of reconstruction of points of view which seemed to be underway during most of the sessions.

The relevance for education of the excerpted sessions is not far to seek. The viewpoints of rationalism and empiricism, of authoritarianism and non-authoritarianism are epitomized by the model teachers. For example, in one session a directive (rationalistic) and persuasive (authoritarian) model teacher is juxtaposed against a directive and non-persuasive model teacher. In the next session a non-directive, non-authoritarian group-centered model teacher is juxtaposed against a non-directive but teacher-centered model; these model teachers exemplify the virtues of non-authoritarianism and open-ended empiricism. From these sessions as well as from others the Interns found substance and succor for their own growth.

The model teachers could easily be termed "gifted" teachers. All were outstanding. Notwithstanding, the Interns were asked to criticize the model teachers. The Interns were asked not only to be critical of the model teachers, but were expected to go ahead and differ from them in teaching. It was expected that the model teachers would be different from each other and present different points of view; hence, the Interns could not copy each model. In fact, the Interns would have to be very different from some of the outstanding model teachers.

Finally, it may be said that the several sessions carried out most of the six basic principles of the pedagogical theory. Heterogeneity of personnel, interaction of belief and behavior, cognitive perplexity, alternative and competing points of view, the usefulness of a framework of thought, and the application of theories to practice are found here. The general aim was to change attitudes toward greater logical consistency of ideas about education. This aim was achieved. A brief documentation of the experiment is to be found in the next section.

Conclusions: Evaluation of the Experiment

The basic theme threaded throughout this study is simply that college teaching is a profession. If, therefore, professions tend to have some fundamental tenets in common, then to prepare a person from another profession (e.g. research chemist, historian, writer) for pursuing the profession of college teaching, one must expand and enlarge the areas the two professions have in common. Professions, it is assumed, are marked off by their interest in theoretical concerns. Hence, the preparation of new college teachers ought to stress theory: theories of knowledge and value (from philosophy); theories of learning (from psychology); and theories of group processes (from sociology). The teacher of history, or of physics, or of English, makes a number of tacit assumptions about knowledge, value, and learning; the task of a preparation program is to make such assumptions explicit as a way of providing "hand-holds" (categories of thought) for the neophyte. Once these basic ideas are made explicit and their relevance discovered, it remains only for the professional person to learn to pursue his discipline in an expanded framework of educational theory to become a person worthy of being a college teacher.

With these considerations in mind, an experiment was designed to determine whether a preparation program could modify attitudes and ideas of a selected group of potential part-time college teachers.

A test (the GNC scale)[3] for logical consistency (cognitive attitude) and a test (the WSF scale)[4] for authoritarianism (affective attitude) were used. Testing occurred three times: September, January, and June. The control group was tested two times but did not undergo the preparation program. The experimental group underwent a preservice seminar (September to January) and the teaching of one course in its field (January to June).

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[3] The initials GNC derive from the first letters in the authors' last names; see D. B. Gowin, G. L. Newsome, Jr., and K. A. Chandler, "A Scale To Study Logical Consistency of Ideas about Education" (to be published, 1960).

[4] For the rationale, scale items, and other information see H. Web-

Two of the three major hypotheses were positively supported by the experimental evidence. First, it was shown that Interns who experienced the preservice preparation program exhibited increased theoretical consistency (P = .01) and decreased authoritarianism (P = .01). Secondly, it was shown that Interns who experienced the actual teaching situation decreased in theoretical consistency and increased in authoritarianism, but not enough to lower significantly the gains derived from the preparation. At the end (June), Interns' scores were significantly different from initial scores (September) in predicted direction (i.e., toward consistency and away from authoritarianism). In other words, the cognitive and affective attitude changes wrought by the preservice experience withstood the tests of actual teaching. The control group did not shift consistently or significantly in any direction during the period of the experiment.

A third hypothesis was not unequivocally supported. Interns who shifted toward greater consistency were not rated by students as "better" teachers than those who did not so shift. However, the experimental group of Interns (which did as a group shift toward greater consistency) was rated as the equal of experienced full-time faculty members. The methodological problem of student ratings was not sufficiently solved to supply a definitive test of this third hypothesis.[5]

In conclusion, theoretical consistency and nonauthoritarianism were shown to be complementary, and they seemed to be compatible with philosophic empiricism. Theoretical consistency, nonauthoritarianism, and philosophic empiricism suggest a positive but open-ended view of teaching. This view supports the conception of college teaching as a profession

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ster, N. Sanford, and M. Freedman, "A New Instrument for Studying Authoritarianism in Personality," The Journal of Psychology, Vol. 40, 1955, pp. 73-84.

[5] For a discussion of this methodological problem, including an interpretation of the failures of most student rating forms, see D. B. Gowin and D. E. Payne, "Evaluating Instruction: Cross-Perceptions of College Students and Teachers" (to be published, 1960).

based upon a structured body of professional knowledge that in turn is based upon consistently reasoned theory. The evidence seems to reject the notion that college teaching need be chiefly the imitation of master teachers, or a handbook of "tricks," or simple guesswork compounded into a cumbersome routine. The evidence indicates that the philosophical-psychological-sociological theory with which the Interns struggled in the seminar had a measurable effect upon the modification of their attitudes. The theory was taught in a context which made it the chief instrument for determining techniques and methods to be used in a given situation. Theory, in freeing the teacher from imitation and immediacy, seemed to promote the use of intelligence and creativity in meeting teaching problems. Furthermore, theory is nowhere more important than when the knotty basic issues in education—freedom and authority, the nature of knowledge, the bases of knowledge, the bases of values—are confronted directly rather than passed over with reference to the often skimpy and superficial "philosophy of our college." Teachers can learn theory. Theory can be taught in terms of criteria of use (e.g., heuristic, helpful in making decisions, comprehensive, systematic). Theory, while difficult, is not so forbidding as to be impossible. Mature individuals do respond to the challenges of both basic issues in education and the subject matter of education—sociology, psychology, philosophy.

APPENDIX

Pre-Service Education Program for the Part-Time College Faculty Members

SECTION I—ORIENTATION, INDUCTION, AND TESTING

The First to Third Sessions

I. Formal announcement of the First Meeting
  A. Welcome letter
  B. Time schedule; catalogues; university map; car sticker; parking data
  C. Invitation to reception for all faculty members

II. Induction Dinner Meeting
  A. Short meeting of sponsors prior to dinner
  B. Introductions during dinner meeting
    1. Assignment of sponsor
    2. Biographical details—written
  C. Historical data on University
  D. University ideals and policies

III. Experimental Research Program—First Testing

SECTION II—TEACHING IN COLLEGE

Fourth to Fourteenth Sessions

A. You as part of the teaching profession
  1. Brief history of profession; why is it a profession
  2. Academic freedom, the search for truth, professional attitude
  3. Character of a community college
B. Departmental Orientation
  1. Meeting with department
  2. Discussion of fields taught and specific course assigned to new person
  3. Teaching materials available
    a. Texts, manuals, tests, films, library, outlines, bookstore services
    b. Other services available (duplication, secretarial)
  4. Sponsors complete report of what actually happened and return to co-ordinator
C. Observation of College Teaching
  1. Preparation and arranging for observation
    a. Film "Tips on Teaching"
    b. Paper "On the Anatomy of Teaching"

        2. Observing a departmental class
        3. Follow-up discussion

D. The student as a learner (two sessions)
    1. Panel—college students
       Behavior patterns
        a. Maturity levels
        b. Variety
        c. Aims and objectives
        d. Backgrounds
    2. Guest Lecture
       Higher Mental Processes in Higher Education
        a. Critical reading of essays on college teaching
        b. Demonstration of the "shared inquiry" technique of teaching

E. The Learning Process
    1. Lecture—Behaviorism vs. Gestalt-Theorie
        a. Kinds of knowledge
        b. Introduction to theories of learning
        c. Application and choosing right one
    2. Panel: "Is Quality in Higher Education To Be Lost with Increased Quantity?"

F. Planning and Teaching (two sessions)
    1. Major concepts in planning a course of instruction
        a. Three Phases of Planning
            (1) Aims of teaching; appropriate theory of knowledge
            (2) Methods and techniques of teaching; appropriate theory of learning
            (3) Evaluation of teaching; appropriate theory of value
        b. Methods of Approach
            (1) Outlines (course planning)
            (2) The teaching plan (daily preparation)
            (3) Planning the physical environment
            (4) Maintaining proper educational atmosphere
            (5) Testing and measuring
            (6) Film "The Lesson Plan"
    2. Evaluation of Teaching
        a. Subjective theories of value
        b. Objective theories of value
        c. Interactional theories of value

G. Teaching Techniques (two sessions) (model teachers)
    1. Directive (demonstrated to Intern)
        a. Lecture
        b. Defense of approach
        c. Discussion
    2. Non-Directive
        a. Lecture of presentation
        b. Defense of approach
        c. Discussion

H. Review of Seminar
    1. Theories presented
    2. "Major Concepts" paper evaluated and discussed

SECTION III—DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OTHER THAN TEACHING

Fifteenth and Sixteenth Sessions

A. Official
  1. University procedures
    a. Grade books, grades
    b. Communications, pay
  2. Advisory program and assistance
  3. Registration procedures and assistance
B. Unofficial
  1. University functions
  2. Fraternity life and assistance

SECTION IV—EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH PROGRAM—SECOND TESTING

Seventeenth Session

SECTION V—IN-SERVICE MEETINGS

Eighteenth to Twenty-Third Sessions

Individual conferences and small group sessions during first teaching assignment. (Voluntary)

SECTION VI—EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH PROGRAM—THIRD TESTING

Twenty-fourth Session

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ABILITY AND ACHIEVEMENT OF EVENING COLLEGE AND EXTENSION STUDENTS

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CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS

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THE CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS was established as the result of a grant from the Fund for Adult Education to work with the universities providing liberal education for adults. The official purpose of the Center is to "provide aid and leadership to the forces that can develop the evening college and extension movement into a more effective instrument for the liberal education of adults." Communications may be addressed to the Director, 4819 Greenwood Avenue, Chicago 15, Illinois.

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A NOTE ON METHODOLOGY

This little review concerns itself mainly with the results of a number of studies and deals with them as concisely as possible. Rather than run the danger of fatiguing the reader with long descriptions of the methods used in the studies, we decided to reserve such comment for this brief note for those who are interested.

The first group of studies, of possible differences in learning ability between undergraduate and adult students, is methodologically very simple. The problem is essentially one of comparing two populations on the basis of a null hypothesis, that is, the test of the assertion that "on some accepted measurement of learning ability there is no significant difference between the two groups." The only question of interest, then, assuming that most colleges believe in the tests of ability which they continually use, is whether the researcher selected his populations without bias. In a number of studies, all members of both populations were tested; there cannot, of course, be any sampling doubts in these cases, if the minority of cases which slipped through the net did so for reasons due to pure chance. Such might be the case if the researcher did not bother to follow up on the normal absentees on the evening of test administration. If the test were publicized in advance and some students deliberately stayed away because they feared taking it, a good chance for error exists. Those studies which depended on a sample drawn from both populations are more suspect. Drawing a random sample, then making sure that most of the subjects selected actually took the tests, is a very difficult procedure even though it is recognized as the safest. In the kinds of studies we cite, it was seldom followed.

I think it is fair to say, however, that the consistency of findings in the studies itself argues powerfully for the insignificance of any sampling error. The possibility that such closely similar results, in a number of independently conducted studies over a fairly long period of time, might occur by chance rather than by actual variations in the populations under study, is very low indeed.

The final studies of achievement present a more complex problem. Ability is presumed to be some trait, or combination of traits, which might or might not be developed successfully under a given set of conditions. Picking for admission students who scored fairly high in ability tests merely asserts one's confidence that they are more likely to succeed than those who scored low. Achievement, on the other hand, might be related to any number of variables in the situation itself. Students might achieve better in some subjects than others, due to motivation; the measurement of achievement, based on different definitions, might vary greatly. Students might respond variously to the same situation because of sex differences, differences in the amount of academic background, etc.

Reliability of the findings, then, depend on how carefully the variables other than "part-time evening," "full-time day," and "age" were controlled. Most of the studies cited used matched pairs, which is a rather rigorous method. Others used the device of comparing classes in the same subject, taught by the same teacher, taking the same examination. In all but one of the cases (the caveat is noted in the text) considerable care was taken to keep the variable under study uncontaminated by other significant possible variations.

In general, and to a far greater extent than studies in most areas of education, these data support the generalization drawn from them, and are derived by methods of sufficient rigor to compel belief, even if they contradict the personal perceptions of some faculty members. As the text suggests, the interesting question remains, why do the faculty perceive the way they do?

Harry L. Miller,
Assistant Director.

June, 1959

ABILITY AND ACHIEVEMENT OF EVENING COLLEGE AND EXTENSION STUDENTS

Evidence suggests that adult students both in evening colleges and in university extension have intellectual ability and achievement at least equal to that of their undergraduate counterparts. Yet the assumption that adult students are less able stubbornly persists. This misconception is itself an important cause of poor instruction, since it misleads instructors into stretching out or watering down the subject matter of their courses in a kindly but condescending effort to ease up on the adult student. These procedures may produce mediocre accomplishment which is then interpreted as confirming the preconceived notion that adult students on the whole are not very capable.

This cycle needs to be interrupted by a review of the studies which provide some objective evidence on the question. Most of these investigations have developed in the area of evening college or extension credit courses with clearly specified subject content. It is only in such courses that comparison with undergraduate work would be appropriate, for most adult learning situations require course designs taking into account the different purposes, capacities and motivations of adult students. In the situations studied, however, presumably everyone would agree that only those who truly master the specified subject content of the course should receive formal credit for it.

Lurking behind the charge of "soft pedagogy" is a trace even yet of the opinion that adults simply do not have the mental agility to equal learning performance of younger people. But over a period of thirty years, evidence has accumulated to demonstrate that this is not the case. Or the charge may rest on the assumption that those who actually enroll in evening or extension classes are a less carefully selected and therefore a less well equipped group than residence students. Here again, enough evidence exists to discredit the charge.

Finally, though the adult students are equally capable, they may still in fact achieve less than campus students. Adult classes can certainly be found where inferior results are produced by inadequate facilities or by poor instruction. Similar defects in residence programs may easily be underestimated by faculty members, all of whom are to some extent emotionally involved in the endless jousting for academic respectatility in the university community. Measure of adult achievement and comparison of class records again lend no support to the charge of lower standards in the adult education endeavors of the university—indeed, it seems that adults do better than undergraduates. Here, however, the evidence is incomplete; probably more work needs to be done to refute the charge.

Perhaps when the careless soft pedagogy debate has been laid to rest we may get on to the more useful examination of what the special needs, maturity and sharp motivation of adult students imply for the design of more effective adult education programs.

Can Adults Learn?

Probably few by now need to be convinced that adults retain their learning ability with only slight decline through most of the life span. Brunner summarizes the key studies which have established this conclusion. Montross[2] reviews these with interesting observations on the differentiation and elaboration of the studies and suggestions for further research. Pressey[1] and Kuhlen, Hand, and Calvin provide other reviews of the research. The results of Thorndike's[3] pioneer studies are well known.

> "The general result of our labors in this respect is that whatever differences exist as a consequence of fundamental and necessary psychological changes with age are very moderate in amount, and will not prevent the older group from doing at forty-five on a somewhat reduced scale almost anything which they could have done at the physiological acme of life at twenty-five."

Essentially, Thorndike measured ability to memorize, a form of learning for which adults feel little zest. Other studies, including longitudinal tests of the same individuals over many years, have both supported his basic conclusion and modified it in the direction of a more favorable picture of adult learning capacity.

Dr. Nancy Bayley, head of the Child Development Section of the National Institute of Mental Health, states that studies on the same people as they grow older show that some mental abilities continue to improve with age up to 50. In 1921, Lewis Terman tested 1,000 highly intelligent children at the ages of ten and eleven. Dr. Bayley aided him in 1939, when the same subjects were retested at an average age of 29, and again in 1951, when most had reached 40. The studies[4] show that these subjects improved in vocabulary and general information at each stage of the study. William Owens at Iowa State College[5] came to the same conclusion by giving male freshmen the Army Alpha Test in 1919 and retesting 126 of them whom he tracked down as they turned 50. Almost all the men made better scores at 50 than they had in their late teens or early 20's.

Montross notes the interesting progression in adult learning studies from the simple administration of standard tests to samples of the adult population, through the development of longitudinal studies and other forms of research, cumulating into an elaborated set of propositions useful in guiding further investigation intelligently. Lehman's[6] painstaking study of achievement in various fields extends the analysis to meaningful life performance while recent interest in gerontology has produced a profusion of case studies of oldsters still alert and learning into advanced age, for example, Pressey's[7] 86 year old lawyer who "picked up French and was soon reading French fiction."

Scholastic Aptitude of Adult Students

Coming a step closer, no doubt many adults can learn, but what is the aptitude for university level work of those who actually register for courses?

Herbert Sorenson studied this question in 1933 at the University of Minnesota, extending his studies later to five other university extension divisions.[8,9] In each case he compared the mental capacity of extension students with that of the residence freshmen using the Psychological Examination of the American Council on Education, the Ohio State University Psychological Test, the Kentucky Classification Test or the Minnesota Reading Test. In all comparisons he found the extension and residence classes similar in mental ability.

> "The evidence indicates that the measured abilities of extension and non-extension students are essentially equal. In some universities the extension students have higher abilities and in others the full-time students are slightly superior,

> that the differences are not very large at any university. They do indicate, however, that any existing superiority is found within the adult group. The scores of the poorest extension students are as low as, and sometimes lower than, those of the poorest residence students, but the best extension students are probably a little more capable than the best non-extension students."

Though it is commonly assumed that the range between best and worst students is far greater in adult classes than in campus classes, Sorenson found that in all cases "the range and distribution of abilities within extension and non-extension groups are very similar." A similar study by McGrath and Froman[11] concluded that:

> ". . . the evening students of the University of Buffalo were of college caliber, determined by the standards of the residence student body; and according to the results of a vocabulary test administered to both evening and day students, although inferior to the seniors, were slightly superior to the freshmen."

Farnum[12] in 1955 compared the aptitude of students enrolling in University of Rhode Island Extension credit courses in Business Administration with the entering class in the residence School of Business Administration. With a mean age of 29.8, the 68 extension students represented an extremely heterogeneous educational background; the 119 residence students constituted the entire freshman class with a mean age of 19.6.

Statistical comparisons of the mean scores of the two groups for the total score on the ACE Psychological Examination and the component parts of the Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test show:

> No significant difference on the ACE Test; though the mean score of residence students was slightly higher.
>
> Extension students significantly higher (at the 1% level of confidence) on vocabulary scores.
>
> No significant difference in speed of comprehension scores.
>
> Extension students higher (significant at the 5% level of confidence) on the Level of Comprehension score.

On all tests other than the Speed of Comprehension, the standard deviation of the mean scores of extension students is slightly higher than that of the residence students, suggesting a slightly greater dispersion of ability in the extension group.

Recently completed comprehensive testing as part of a self-study project at University College of the University of Chicago, again demonstrates that evening college students are equal to the typical undergraduates.[13] Indeed, in this undeniably atypical evening college, the ACE scores of the entire student body show them to be unmistakably superior to the average freshman class. Average combined scores measuring ability to think in quantitative terms and in language skills were 117, in the 67th percentile on national ACE norms, while in some part of the program average scores were as high as 129, that is, higher than 84% of the national undergraduate group.

These studies of the mental ability of adult students actually enrolled in university level credit courses with clearly defined subject content may be summarized: the adult students are as capable of doing good academic work as the college freshmen; in some respects, especially in vocabulary, adults may be better equipped; the range of abilities within each group is very similar.

These conclusions confirm the impressions of faculty members who have experience with both adult and undergraduate students. Dyer,[14] summarizing their attitudes, states that the superior adult student is as good as or better than the superior day student, while the average students in both classifications are about equal. However, there is no evidence to buttress the impression that the poor evening college student is likely to be considerably poorer than his day-time counterpart.

Adult Achievement

Sorenson also collected data comparing fifty pairs of comparable day and evening classes. In each pair the instructor, subject matter, and examinations were the same. Twenty-six extension classes were superior, fourteen inferior, and ten equal to the residence classes. In few cases were the differences very great and the results were similar on either objective or subjective exams. Eighty-nine instructors in fifteen universities were interviewed by Sorenson. Of these faculty members, experienced both in extension and in residence teaching, about one-third held that achievement in extension classes is superior to that in residence classes, one-third that it is inferior, and the rest detected little difference.

Another bit of evidence comes from Sorenson's comparison in two universities of the grades of extension students who had at one time or another taken residence courses. These students attained higher average marks in residence courses than the average residence student, though the difference was slight.

CSLEA Sponsored Studies

In 1953, the CSLEA encouraged the evening colleges of Roosevelt University, De Paul University, and the University of Pittsburgh to conduct simply designed experiments which would assess the achievement of their adult students using matched sets of undergraduates for comparison.

Roosevelt University

At Roosevelt University twenty-four pairs of day and evening students in degree credit courses were selected from the registration records, matched on the basis of sex, number of credit hours completed, and ACE Psychological Test Sophomore Comprehensive Total Score. Each group was given the Educational Testing Service's General Culture Test, a standard three hour measure of knowledge and understanding in history and social studies, literature, fine arts, and science and mathematics. The evening students demonstrated roughly the same achievement as the day students on this test.

A validating second step at Roosevelt University was the comparison of the objective type examinations given by four instructors to both day and evening classes. These revealed no significant differences, though the evening adult classes did somewhat better than the day classes.

De Paul University

At De Paul University[17] 37 pairs of male students in the College of Commerce were matched on number of semester hours credit and percentile rank on total ACE scores. Two supplementary studies were added to insure that the similarity between some components of the ACE ability test and the Cooperative General Culture Test achievement measure would not produce a spurious similarity in achievement scores.

The evening college students scored higher in the cultural achievement tests, though not significantly higher. A statistically significant dif-

-ference was found, however, in the range between the best and poorest students in the two groups with the range in the evening group being slightly greater than that in the day.

University of Pittsburgh

The plan was modified somewhat at Pittsburgh. The high school grade point average of the student was used as an ability score, and the two groups were compared on three sections of the Graduate Record Examination (Social Sciences, Humanities, Natural Sciences), juniors and seniors in day and evening were matched. The results were inconclusive because of the small number of evening students (sixteen) compared with 214 day students. No statistically significant differences between the two groups emerged, but the results reported do not warrant any conclusions.

* * * * *

An unexpected accretion of insight into the relevance of age and maturity on scholastic achievement has come from recent research on educational television.

Extensive experiments with television credit courses sponsored by the Chicago City Junior College compared the capacity and performance of adult television students with that of regular classroom control groups.[1] Typical college level courses were presented by television with the credit students in the audience using study guides, in-person review sessions and examinations. These students average 36 years in age. Precisely the same courses were given in the classroom to regularly enrolled students, 81% of whom were under 21 years of age. A second control group received the telecasts plus 20 minutes of classroom instruction at each session.

> "In all subjects taught, English, Biology, Social Science, Political Science and Mathematics, the television experimental group showed higher, though, with the exception of Biology, which was significant at the 5% level favoring the TV student, not significantly higher achievement than the two control groups."

When the age factor and the better performance of the older students on the Otis Intelligence Test and the ACE Critical Thinking Test were controlled by using matched pairs, there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups, though the adult students still tended to do better.

> "The apparent superiority of the achievement of the experimental television group can be presumed to be related to the factors of age, maturity, and motivation, factors worth tighter control in the second year of the experiment."

Similar superior performance by adult television students has been noted in psychology courses at Iowa State College,[16] at Western Reserve University,[18] and at the University of Toronto,[19] where learning and retention of material in a lecture on an unfamiliar subject were the factors studied.

Conclusion

In the context of credit courses at the university, the only area in which a comparison would be relevant, there is considerable evidence that adult students are equal or perhaps slightly superior to undergraduate students in learning performance. Without exception in the groups tested adults have shown equal or superior learning ability. Undocumented assertions that evening college and extension classes are inferior must be checked against these facts.

The whole discussion of soft pedagogy must be placed in context. Pedagogy is soft, or standards are lower in the evening, it is charged, because adults are less bright, more weary or not interested. Associated with these opinions is the fact that the best faculty do not teach in the evenings. Research can rather quickly be brought to bear to show that adult aptitude matches or surpasses that of undergraduates and that their motivation is dramatically stronger. This, however, do not deal effectively with the charge. Carey[20] has shown that in the life cycle development of the evening college the charge concerning "standards" in the evening is made partly because of the stance of the orthodox resident faculty against the innovator, partly because of serious and realistic fears.

Many residence deans feel strongly committed to a conception derived from a venerable academic tradition of what is educationally important. The evening or extension dean, on the other hand, hopes that the university will be willing slightly to modify its established procedures so that adult needs also may be met. So far from threatening the scholarly intellectual tradition of the university, he feels that a well operated extension program presents a superb opportunity to enrich and strengthen the university's central endeavor.

Some residence deans, sensing the opportunity and the challenge, become firm though alert and constructively critical supporters of extension; many remain aloof so long as their own bailiwicks are not drastically affected; a few, however, fly against the "innovator" with withering comments about selling goods, making money, and prostituting standards.

In a dialogue with the adult dean these hostile critics have every advantage of power, position, and tradition. They know what they have; they like it; they are willing to fight (often with a truly admirable dedication to truly worthy ideals) to retain things as they are. From this group, surely, must come any of the ill-considered and emotion-laden soft pedagogy charges, against which evidence will count for little. The adult dean must counter with sympathy, endless willingness to explain his mission and the sternest attention to the excellence of his own endeavor.

Carey's studies of the life cycle of the evening college suggest that the evening college first serves (or is perceived as serving) a "back door" function as probationer. Later in the cycle of development equivalent quality in programming is attained, more mature scholars are brought into the evening program and the distinctive character of the evening enterprise is developed through tailored non-credit programs for special audiences. This reduces the probationary population and the soft pedagogy charge is no longer (or is less frequently) made.

Further research would detail this development as concerns the charge of lower standards. Who characteristically makes the charge within the university? Are these the key sectors of the university system? Is it true that complex evening divisions do not face the soft pedagogy charges? Are there exceptions here? Are these cases with a large probationary population where the charge is not made? How do we account for this?

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CUMULATIVE INDEXES

Association of University Evening Colleges
Proceedings, 1948–58
National University Extension Association
Proceedings, 1915–57

EDITED BY
ANNE LOCKWOOD
Staff Assistant

CENTER *for the* **STUDY OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS**

April 1960

THE CENTER *for the* STUDY OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS was established as the result of a grant from the Fund for Adult Education to work with the universities providing liberal education for adults. The official purpose of the Center is to "provide aid and leadership to the forces that can develop the evening college and extension movement into a more effective instrument for the liberal education of adults." Communications may be addressed to the Director, 4819 Greenwood Avenue, Chicago 15, Illinois.

Publications of the Center are listed on the inside covers, with information as to how they may be obtained.

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INTRODUCTION

Don't throw this index away just because you have no set of the *Proceedings* indexed! CSLEA's clearinghouse service will provide photocopies of the references if you will give us a clear statement of the subject in which you are interested and a list of the entries you think may relate to it.

We are grateful to Anne Lockwood for the intellectual skill with which she has brought to life the valuable material buried in the *Proceedings*, to Hermine Orear for her help in organizing the production of the indexes, to Lois Shropshear who sailed through a maddening typing assignment, and finally to Edwin Spengler, Bernard Reed, and Julius Nolte for help in rounding out our sets of the *Proceedings*.

AUEC Proceedings for recent years may still be obtained from Edwin Spengler, AUEC Executive Secretary, School of General Studies, Brooklyn College, and most of the *NUEA Proceedings* are available from the NUEA Secretary, Julius Nolte, Extension Division, University of Minnesota.

ROGER DECROW
Clearinghouse Director

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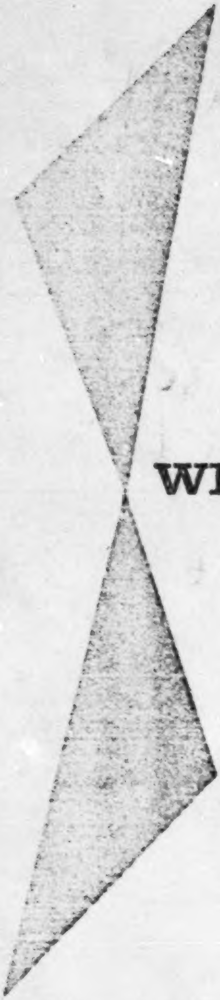

WE NEED A PHILOSOPHY . . .

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CENTER *for the* **STUDY OF LIBERAL EDUCATION FOR ADULTS**

FOREWORD

We are pleased to publish this essay because we believe it will enable the reader to sharpen his thinking about his own philosophy of education (for the author believes many philosophies are inevitable in a pluralistic society). The essay is not merely concerned with clarification of philosophical positions but more importantly with its implementation through educational programs—or as he states it, "The best way to be philosophical and practical is to examine the relationship between means and ends in education."

John S. Diekhoff requires no introduction, at least to the academic world where his varied activities have made him a man of many parts—Milton scholar, teacher, first director of the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, and Dean of Cleveland College, the adult education division of Western Reserve University. By reason of experience and inclination he is a thoughtful and vigorous critic of American education and admirably qualified to write of ends and means.

James B. Whipple
Assistant Director
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Year after year groups of educators sit in convention and committee and nod in solemn agreement when someone says that there is a crucial need for a philosophy of education, or for a philosophy of American education, or for a philosophy of adult education. Fortunately, in our society and in our tradition, we can't have it. As long as we are a pluralistic society, as long as our public is made up of many publics, we shall continue to have philosophies of education in conflict with one another. Meanwhile, educators will continue to muddle along as best they can (which is very well indeed) on the basis of different philosophies (or different assumptions), often not formulated at all; and they will continue to feel pressure from different individuals and publics with varied philosophies and assumptions. It has been said that the United States does not have an ideology; it is one. The same may be said of American education. Like the American ideology, the philosophy of education is tentative, changing, and eclectic.

It will be apparent that I use the word philosophy lightly. I shall make no attempt to present systematically the various philosophies of education which underlie the different purposes and practices of agencies of continuing education and which give focus to the work of educators. There will be no discussion of the conflict between the followers of Dewey and the leaders of Hutchins, no description of the consequences in practice of idealism or pragmatism or realism or instrumentalism or reconstructionism or essentialism or progressivism or classicism or any of the other isms which can be culled from the textbooks in the Philosophy of Education but less easily from the philosophers, and still less easily from educational practices. Except by implication, there will be no analysis of such philosophical questions as what is the nature of man, the nature of learning, the nature of society, the nature of pedagogical authority—questions about which, Kenneth Benne says, there are clusters of assumptions which guide our different educational practices.

Nevertheless, it may be well to illustrate the bearing that philosophical assumptions have on educational practice. Many educators begin their thinking about education with the age-old definition of man as a rational animal. No one thinks he defines man in this simple phrase or that he has said all there is to say. There are other aspects of manhood, and both animality and rationality are complex and difficult ideas that need further definition. But the description of man as "a rational animal" nevertheless shapes and describes the educational program that it underlies. Those who begin with this description of man are likely to regard education as primarily a means of enhancing rationality—certainly not as a means of enhancing animality. They are likely to phrase objectives in terms of disciplines or subjects to be understood rather than in terms of experience to be suffered, in terms of knowledge and skills to be mastered rather than in terms of attitudes or emotions to be induced, in terms of individual accomplishment rather than in terms of social progress. Extremists talk about education at one level in terms of "the three R's" and at another level in terms of the trivium and the quadrivium. Or less extreme, like Mr. Conant, they talk of the "hard core of solid subjects."

Others begin with an equally simple definition of man as "a social animal." This does not deny man's rationality nor his intellectual capacity, but it leads nevertheless to stress on different things in education. The different adjective changes the educational practice. When in the course of a discussion of elementary education I hear about the "social experience of juice together," I know that the speaker has a different conception from mine of the value and purpose of the coffee break, the cocktail hour, and the juice squeeze, and that he has a different conception from mine of what education is and of what schools are for. We differ about third-grade education and we will differ about adult education and about all levels of education in between. The extremist in this view may talk about the school-centered community, for example, arguing that schools should be central agencies for all worthy activities and that the school should somehow coincide in breadth with the community and in duration with the lives of its residents. He is likely to talk about education as life, or as living, rather than as part of living or an aid to it. He will plan his educational program accordingly. Different philosophical assumptions lead to different practices.

Perhaps it boils down to this. Some of us think we have done our duty to society if we enhance the rationality of the men who compose it. Others think we have done our duty to the individual if we improve the society in which he lives, and give him appropriate social habits for the new society.

There is no disagreement here. Of course other things than schools shape men. The society as a whole shapes men. A better society makes a better man, or makes it easier to be a better man. This ought to be our criterion of a better society. If our object is to change human behavior in certain ways, a change in the law, a change in the social structure, a particular change in the community may do it. Clearing a slum may do it. But to say that education aims at changing human behavior does not imply, or need not, that everything that changes human behavior is education. Surely it does not imply that every educational agency must employ every means to change human behavior. Mr. Hutchins observes that we need unspecialized men but specialized institutions. The university is a specialized institution. As unspecialized citizens, one of our obligations is to foster a society in which there will be no slums, but slum clearance is not one of our obligations as educators. Or so I think, on the basis of my assumptions. Many will disagree.

There are differences among us, semi-philosophical differences, about man's nature and purpose that reflect themselves in the dedication of some to "liberal" education, of others to "vocational" education, and in the denial by some that any such distinction is valid at all. Over-simplified, it is a question whether the chief end of education is to enhance man's capacity for work or his capacity for enjoyment, but we hold shades of opinion that cover the range between these apparently opposing views. The questions are partly about man's nature. They are fascinating questions, and there are equally fascinating questions about the nature of society, the nature of knowledge, and the nature of learning. One can ask simple basic questions about the tasks of an educator: what are we trying to do? how can we do it? how are these questions related?

Simple and homely these questions may be, but together they constitute the perennial question of ends and means in education; and addressing ourselves to that question is the best way for educators to be both philosophical and practical at the same time. Indeed, the relationship between ends and means, what we are trying to do and how we think we can do it, is theoretically and practically a question of crucial and often ignored, importance. One of the most startling things about educational programs, perhaps especially about programs of continuing education for adults is the frequent disparity between our professed ends and the means we have at our disposal. It is a disparity that assures failure.

How many programs of continuing education profess to strengthen the democratic way of life? Most of us, whenever we make a speech, say that this is one of our aims. This is conventional wisdom, in the sense that it is always said at conventions. When we have said it, we sometimes assert that everything we do contributes to that end; and thus we justify everything that we do in a neat circular argument. The director of one program of adult education (I have used this anecdote before and expect to again) once assured me that his class in ballroom dancing was the best education for democracy that his program included. People danced together who would not even meet one another in other circumstances.

People wish to dance, and if they wish to dance they must learn to do it. They will learn more easily with a teacher, and I have no objection if someone wants to teach them, not much objection to calling it adult education, and no objection to calling it adult. But the central object of dancing lessons is to learn dancing, not democracy. If people in a dancing class broaden their acquaintance, develop tolerance for toe-treaders, shin-kickers, and other majority groups and special social classes, or manage to overcome the frustrations of past social failures, these are collateral benefits and not the benefits on which we should base our judgments of the success of a dancing class. I am sure of this: if we depend on dancing classes to produce an informed citizenry, to bring us nearer to the Jeffersonian ideal in which every man is his own statesman, we shall fail. We shall still have our failures if we accept ends more commensurate with our means, but they will not be such dismal failures and they will not be predestined. As little children we reach for the moon and are frustrated and angry when we fail to touch it. When our perception grows more acute, we know it is out of reach and reach instead for an apple on the table. For this we have to stretch. The stretch is important. But if there is nothing within reach, we stop reaching and stop stretching.

We have distant general goals, and nearer more particular goals. Distant goals are approached by steps; the goals we aim at directly are lesser and more immediate. One problem is to be sure that they are steps in the right direction (reaching for apples does not take us nearer the moon). The other problem is to be sure that they are commensurate with our means or to find means that are commensurate with them.

Perhaps it is good for us to think in terms of distant general purposes: strengthening democracy, encouraging self-realization, developing economic competence, improving the community, fostering more fruitful use of leisure, and combating the psychological maladjustments of an industrial age. Educators who work with adults may well take satisfaction in thinking that they draw their pay for perfecting people, strengthening democracy, producing wealth, enriching leisure, clearing slums, and rearranging the deranged. Perhaps our commitment to some of these educational goals is our therapy; it is an ego-warming list. But perhaps (more likely) seeing ourselves in these terms is our derangement.

If so, the way back to sanity is to examine the means that we employ. The means we provide our students for their self-realization may turn out to be a sponsored and guided bird-watching club for those addicted to Sunday morning hikes. Our means of making every man his own statesman may be a ten-week discussion group on Russian Foreign Policy. Our program designed to result in economic independence for the individual and to bolster the economy of the nation may be a fifteen-week course in salesmanship. We may undertake to improve the community by discussing local election issues in a one-day institute, where the drawing cards are two candidates for mayor. We foster the contemplative life and the more fruitful use of leisure by advertising (this is a former Cleveland College slogan) "Short Courses for Busy People." The classes in bridge and dancing are therapy for the lonely and distraught. And so, like any other manic depressive, we alternate between ecstatic euphoria when we list our objectives and dismal despair when we inventory our means or appraise our achievement.

I think we must do this. If we are to have a philosophy of continuing education (philosophies—I much prefer the plural), we must formulate remote and exalted goals. We cannot be content with less. If we are to have programs, however, they must be in terms of nearer, more concrete, more specific, less exalted, and more realistic goals—realistic in terms of our means and the conditions of our work. Nothing that we do achieves our exalted goals; everything we do ought to move us a little nearer to one or more of them.

It is not possible to be educated, but it is possible to be a little bit educated. Ten evenings discussing Russian Foreign Policy will not make each participant a statesman, but it can make him less ignorant and more statesmanlike. We must be content with small steps as long as they are in the right direction.

We must also be content not to move toward all our goals at the same time. Not everyone in continuing education should set for himself all these general goals or all of the more immediate ones that lead to them. I have quoted Mr. Hutchins as saying that we need unspecialized men and specialized institutions. The evening college is one such specialized institution. It is not reasonable to ask it to provide therapy as if it were a hospital, entertainment as if it were a community center, community reform as if it were a government agency or a citizen's organization. It is part of the business of a university—and its continuing education division shares the responsibility—to teach people to work effectively toward these ends through their participation in other specialized institutions. For our special job is teaching—bringing more and more into the public consciousness the results of professional study, making current the results of scholarship.

Neither should we do all kinds of teaching at all levels. The continuing education division of a university should be circumscribed in its activities by the specialized functions of the parent institution. Whatever "university level" means, that is the level at which it teaches. It should not teach what members of its faculty do not study; what members of its faculty learn, it is under obligation to make known. If it accepts all of the exalted goals that I have listed (except therapy and community development or improvement—and recognizes even these to be ancillary to education), it is content to move toward these objectives. It does not expect to achieve them.

Each agency of continuing education must make decisions of this kind. Which of the over-riding objectives is it established to serve? For what kind of education does it have personnel and facilities unique in the community? Or best, if not unique? What can it leave for others to do? What, given its means, can it hope to do effectively? What educational activities within its means and for which it has special competence should be given priority over others for which it has means and competence?

A library, for example, has the peculiar resource of books and people knowledgeable about books. It may also have available conference and discussion rooms. Its natural clientele (unlike that of the university) covers the whole range of literacy. It is in these terms that it should see itself as a specialized institution. Of course the library overlaps, works with, supplements, is supplemented by, and competes with (if you like) the public schools, the colleges and universities, social agencies, and every other agency concerned with education based on books. After all, it has the books. It is in terms of its books, its expertness, and its client that it determines its purposes and its programs.

Not being an unspecialized man, I cannot describe the specialism of other agencies than my own; but I am sure that each agency ought to define its special responsibility as well as it can in terms of general objectives and the particular means at its disposal, and the conditions under which it works. In the same way, it should define its more particular objectives. Having done so, it should accept its difference from other institutions.

When an educational agency defines its special purposes, it frees itself from the obligations of other agencies. A labor union in a training program for union officers may wish to produce better bargainers. So does an industry, perhaps, in a management training program. The university can give both groups insight that will make better bargainers, too, but they may also be better conceders. If it does make them better conceders, the university cannot worry about it, as the union or the industry might. There is a delightful story of the president of a large manufacturing company enrolled in Mortimer Adler's Great Books course, at the same time that the company was negotiating a new contract with the union. The company president told Adler that his directors wanted him to withdraw from the Great Books group: "Ever since we have been reading Das Kapital," he said, "I have been on the wrong side of the argument." The same thing could happen to a union officer, and it could happen to either of them whether the book is Das Kapital or The Wealth of Nations. In a university or in a Great Books course, we want this kind of thing to happen. I think union officers and company boards ought to want it to happen, too, but they are not likely to agree with me. They have a different philosophy of education, a different definition of education, from mine.

It will be good for people in the university, in management, and in labor to be more philosophical about education, but they are not likely to arrive at the same philosophy. And because they are engaged in education as well as in thinking about it, they have practical as well as philosophical problems.

The best way to be philosophical and practical at the same time, I repeat, is to examine the relationship between means and ends in education.

My favorite commentary on this relationship is in Robinson Crusoe, the story of a practical man who constantly adjusts means to ends and ends to means.[1] Crusoe could not continue his journal because he ran out of ink and could invent no satisfactory substitute. He gave up the journal, but when the time came he wrote the rest of his story from memory. He lost one load of goods from the ship because his raft— his means of transportation— was inadequate for the load he put on it. He could not launch his first canoe because he had built it too far from the sea and had no adequate means to move it. The fences he built were even better than he planned because the green stakes cut from his tropical trees sprouted and grew luxuriantly.

Throughout the story, when Crusoe could not devise sufficient means to achieve his purpose, he modified his purpose. It is after building his first canoe that he comments on "the folly of beginning a work before we count the cost, and before we judge rightly of our strength to go through with it." When the smaller canoe was finished, he gave up hope for a vessel large enough to enable him to seek the mainland. "The smallness of my boat assisted me to put an end to that design and I thought no more of it,"he says. He did not give up hope, of course, and welcomed rescue when it came. But he did not break his heart nor risk his life striving with inadequate means. On the other hand, Crusoe raised his goals upwards, too, when the means justified it. When he discovered that his fence-posts grew, he trained them for shade and camouflage and planted more for additional protection and shade.

This makes another point. The same means may serve several ends. Crusoe's fort became his bower. So in education. What we do when we educate for "responsible leadership" or for "public responsibility" need not necessarily be altogether different from what we do for "individual development" or for "fruitful use of leisure," or, indeed, for "economic independence." It is not easy to separate the personal virtues from the social graces.

The relationship between two common forms of continuing university education will serve to illustrate: political education and parent education. One is "education for public responsibility," the other for private responsibility. But the distinction disappears if we look more closely. One votes in an enclosed booth in more privacy than an American can often achieve elsewhere. Yet our votes should be cast in terms of the public welfare. One brings up children with an overwhelming concern for their individual welfare. We want them to be at home in the culture, yet critical of it. We want them to find satisfaction in their work, but only if it is worthy work. We want them to be self-respecting, but only if they also deserve the respect of others. We want them to be men of good will but not blindly to follow the crowd or yield to the prejudices of others. These would be my private resolutions as a parent, if I were a parent. If I failed, however, it would become obvious that my private responsibilities are also public responsibilities. If we take the extreme case of the juvenile delinquent—the vandal, the thief, or the switch-blade terrorist— it is very apparent that my failure is of consequence not only to my children but to the society. But the case need not be so extreme. I may raise a child who is not definably delinquent (juvenile or adult) and yet have him indifferent to the welfare of others, dedicated to false values. He may end up writing cigarette or cosmetic commercials. Again my private failure is a public failure. Obviously, then, education designed to make me a better parent is education for public responsibility as well as for my private duties. The same means may lead to several goals just as the achievement of a single goal may require a complex of means.

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[1] This and the following paragraph are repeated, substantially, from my discussion of the topic in Smiley and Diekhoff, Prologue to Teaching, Oxford University Press, New York, 1959, p. 245.

Our more general and our more particular goals merge in a somewhat different way. The particular goal may be an immediate step toward the more distant goal, although we usually have to take this on faith. The difference between near and distant goals is one to keep in mind, and a consoling one.

In a recent paperback on submarine warfare, I find a statement of the satisfactions of a navigator:

> Of all my wartime jobs, the one that was most pleasant and interesting was the job of navigator. I loved to navigate. There was something almost sensuously delightful about the precision and exactitude with which you could locate your position out there in those empty wastes of ocean by shooting stars and by using a beautifully made chronometer to give you an exact fix. It is thrilling to go up in daytime, figure out the position of Venus, look in that direction in the sky, and see a dim little pinpoint of light from which you can fix your position. After days of running over the open sea, a good navigator can say, "Tonight at six o'clock we're going to sight such and such an island"—and, by Heaven, when the time comes, there it is. There are few endeavors in life that bring so concrete a reward.[2]

No one in education has any such direct and immediate satisfaction as can come to the navigator who knows where he is going and has visible and immediate proof that he gets there. The educator has no such exact fix and no such clearly recognizable objectives. But if the navigator's goal were stated as making the world safe for democracy, or winning the war, or even sinking an enemy ship, he would be like an educator trying to measure his success in terms of distant goals. Even sinking an enemy ship is too general and too remote a goal. It is not the navigator's alone and it is contingent on too many things for which he is not responsible—including the presence of the enemy ship.

There was a great deal of nonsense published during the war, especially during the Korean war, about the inability of American G.I.'s to tell newspaper correspondents what they were fighting for (no one asked the correspondents, who might have made a useful control group). The G.I.'s seemed to have no goals except to kill Japanese or North Koreans, or to take and hold positions, or to stay alive themselves. Their more remote goal was to get the hell out of there and go home. What else would it be? Surely an ingenious newspaper correspondent could easily have translated this into fighting for country, home, and Mother—which it was.

We need similarly concrete goals for similar motivation, of ourselves and our students, except that we know that our battle is never won. We can never get the hell out of there and go home with the job finished. But we will all be inclined to get the hell out of there and go home with it unfinished if we give ourselves goals that can only result in obvious failure.

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[2] George Grider (as told to Lydel Sims), War Fish, Pyramid Books, New York, 1959, p. 18.

The objective of citizenship education for the foreign-born is responsible American citizenship. The more immediate objective may be technical qualification for citizenship. The measurable objective may be the knowledge that George Washington, not Henry Ford, was the first president of the United States. The ultimate goal of a course in typing may be to give the student "economic independence" or to "qualify a skilled worker for the labor force," or to "bolster the economy," but the measurable achievement is how many words he can type per minute. The ultimate objective of programs in the liberal arts for business executives may be a humane society. The immediate objective may be understanding The Death of a Salesman, and that is tough enough to measure and to achieve.

We commonly use two metaphors in describing our profession. We speak of "those on the firing line." When we use this metaphor, we should remember that the immediate goal is to advance our position a little, not to win the war with a single minor engagement. Of course we also remember the larger goal and regard the minor engagement as leading toward it. Our other metaphor is to describe ourselves as "workers in the vineyard." If we test our success in terms of the ultimate objective of that occupation, the result will be intoxication. In the vineyard we had better be content with gathering grapes. Properly processed, they will yield wine in the end, and we can share with our clients the ultimate enjoyment of the fruit of our effort. I would not deny the worker in the vineyard the refreshment of his evening draft nor the enriched philosophy that may result from it.